

### **Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act**

U.S. Department of Labor

Bureau of

Immigration Policy and Research Characteristics and Labor Market Behavior of the Legalized Population Five Years Following Legalization Section 404 of the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 mandated two Administration reports on the legalization program established under section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act.

The first of these, Immigration Reform and Control Act: Report on the Legalized Alien Population, was submitted to the Congress of the United States by the Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service in 1992.

The second report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act, consists of three volumes:

- U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs:

  Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Characteristics and
  Labor Market Behavior of the Legalized Population Five Years Following
  Legalization.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families: Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program, Final Report, 1995.
- U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Service:

  Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Impact of the Legalization Program on the Food Stamp Program.

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## Characteristics and Labor Market Behavior of the Legalized Population Five Years Following Legalization



U.S. Department of Labor Robert B. Reich, Secretary

Bureau of International Labor Affairs Joaquin F. Otero, Deputy Under Secretary May 1996

This report was prepared by the Division of Immigration Policy and Research as the Department of Labor's submission to the Administration Report Effects of the Immigration Reform and Contro! Act

Shirley J. Smith Roger G. Kramer Audrey Singer

#### U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

SECRETARY OF LABOR WASHINGTON, D.C.

MAY 2 3 1996

The Honorable President of the Senate
The Honorable Speaker of the House of Representatives:

Gentlemen:

I am pleased to submit this report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Characteristics and Labor Market Behavior of the Legalized Population Five Years Following Legalization, prepared by the Department of Labor in response to section 404(c) of the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA).

As you know, IRCA's two legalization programs enabled about 2.7 million undocumented aliens to acquire lawful permanent residence in the United States. The larger of these two programs, outlined in section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act, concerned aliens who had been continuously resident in the United States since the end of 1981. The attached report traces the economic progress of the 1.6 million undocumented aliens legalized under this program. It updates and extends the profile presented in Immigration Reform and Control Act: Report on the Legalized Alien Population, the report submitted by the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) in 1992.

In preparation for this second report, the Department of Labor undertook a Legalized Population Follow-up Survey in 1992. This survey recontacted about 4,000 of the aliens who had participated in the earlier INS Legalized Population Survey, requesting information about the post-legalization period. Their responses to these two surveys provide valuable insights into the behavior and characteristics of this population from the time they entered the United States through mid-1992.

The Office of Management and Budget advises that there is no objection to the submission of this report from the standpoint of the Administration's program.

Sincerely

Robert B. Reich

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This report represents the collective effort of hundreds of individuals from both the public and private sectors. The level of interest in and the enthusiasm for this project have been truly gratifying.

Seven Federal agencies from five Departments of the Administration have pooled their energies, and in many cases funds, to make this report possible. The U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of International Labor Affairs, Division of Immigration Policy and Research (DOL/ILAB/DIPR) led the effort, undertaking the Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2) and coordinating production of the mandated report. We are particularly grateful to the Department's Employment and Training Administration for funding a major portion of the second legalization survey. We are also indebted to the Department of Agriculture's Food and Consumer Service (FCS), the Department of Commerce's Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA), and DOL's Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy for their generous support.

A number of individuals deserve special notice. This study benefited greatly from the planning efforts of ILAB/DIPR Directors Demetrious Papademetriou and Roger Kramer, and from the substantive input of B. Lindsay Lowell and Richard Fry. We are also grateful to staff members of the Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), and the Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families (ACF) for their time and effort. A particular word of thanks to John Bjerke and Michael Hoefer of the INS, Jenny Genser of FCS, Henley Portner of ACF, and William McCormick of BEA for their input. In addition, we are indebted to David Kreeger and Tommy Lo of Fu Associates, Inc., for formatting the many tables in this report and setting up a public use data file containing matched records from the two legalization surveys.

The Legalized Population Follow-up Survey would not have been possible without the dedication and tireless efforts of the staff at Westat, Inc. Our special gratitude to Project Director Dr. John Michael, whose enthusiasm and attention to detail set the tone for the entire team. We also would like to acknowledge the professionalism and fine work of Westat Vice President David Maklan and Westat staff members Naomi Everett, Grethel Hoffmaister, Esther Fleishman, Lyn Clarke, David Lowe, Kathy Measday, and Brian Charles. The field staff,

too, deserve special mention. Like the respondents themselves, many were involved in both legalization surveys. A number were, themselves, legalized aliens.

Finally, we would like to acknowledge the LPS2 respondents, who were not only cooperative but often quite enthusiastic about this survey. Many expressed their gratitude for having an opportunity to tell "the Government" what legalization has meant to them. This, then, is their story.

Shirley J. Smith, Project Director
 Audrey Singer, Co-Investigator
 Bureau of International Labor Affairs

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#### **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Nearly a decade ago, the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA) was passed in an effort to retard the flow of illegal migrants into the United States. IRCA adopted three strategies to accomplish this goal: (1) sanctions against employers for knowingly hiring unauthorized aliens, (2) increased border enforcement to retard unlawful entries, and (3) the legalization of what was then an unknown number of illegally resident aliens.

Title IV of IRCA mandated a series of Administration reports to the Congress acsessing the impacts of these measures. Two of these reports were to describe the characteristics and progress of persons legalized under section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA). The first of these, the Report on the Legalized Alien Population, focused on this group's characteristics and behavior at the time of application (INS, 1992). That report was submitted to the Congress in 1992.

This second report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act, updates the earlier profile by examining changes in the social and economic status of this unique population during its first 5 years of legal residence. This three-volume report draws on information from a variety of sources. Primary among these are a two-wave national Legalized Population Survey, and administrative records of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), the State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program (SLIAG), and the Food Stamp Program (FSP).

#### Background

IRCA enabled about 1.6 million illegal aliens to obtain lawful permanent residence (LPR) by demonstrating that they had been continuously resident in the United States since before January 1, 1982 (IRCA's "pre-1982" provisions). A separate set of provisions also extended LPR status to about 1.1 million Special Agricultural Workers (SAWs).

This report considers some of the effects of the first of these two programs. The cohort of undocumented aliens who were offered lawful permanent residence under section 245A of the INA were not fully representative of the illegally resident U.S. population. To qualify, they had to have completed nearly 5 years of continuous residence in this country—compared with as little as 90 days for

Special Agricultural Workers. This residency requirement meant that, on average, the pre-1982 applicants were somewhat older than those who applied under the SAW program or did not apply at all. As a result, pre-1982 applicants were also more likely to have spouses and children, as well as years of U.S. work experience, sometimes in several different occupations.

Although the SAW program was specifically restricted to agricultural workers, many pre-1982 applicants had held similar jobs in the United States. Thus both groups were residentially concentrated in important agricultural States. However, their relative concentrations differed. Pre-1982 applicants outnumbered SAWs in the industrially diverse States of California, Texas, New York, and Illinois. SAWs outnumbered pre-1982 applicants in the more agricultural-based States of Florida, Arizona, Washington, Oregon, and North Carolina.

Mexicans dominated both pools of applicants: some 70 percent of the pre-1982 group, as compared with 81 percent of SAWs, were from Mexico. Pre-1982 applicants were more likely than SAWs to have originated in Canada or countries of Africa, Europe, or the Caribbean where English is spoken. Hence, various State legalization surveys have found a larger share of pre-1982 applicants to be English proficient. Moreover, pre-1982 applicants were more likely than SAWs to remain in school beyond the elementary level. These initial differences will affect the long-term social, economic, and geographic consequences of the two programs.

#### Survey Findings on the Characteristics of Section 245A Beneficiaries

The legalization surveys provide a unique, longitudinal record of the experiences of section 245A applicants beginning prior to their arrival in the United States. The surveys show that by 1992 most of these beneficiaries were in their early or mid-30s, having spent more than a decade—which is to say the better part of their adult lifetimes—continuously resident in the United States.

More than half of the adult beneficiaries interviewed were men. Mexicans greatly outnumbered both Central Americans and those from other countries (69, 15, and 16 percent, respectively). A disproportionate share lived in California, Texas, and New York (58, 13, and 7 percent, respectively). Fewer than one-quarter lived elsewhere in the United States.

The population in question is predominantly Spanish-speaking. Groups arriving from various regions and in different time periods brought with them quite different educational credentials and English language skills. The clear link between education and language skills meant that certain groups were doubly disadvantaged. Grade school educated LPRs from non-English-speaking countries have experienced little upward mobility in the U.S. labor market. The English language classes mandated by the legalization program have done little

to alter this situation. As recently as 1992, nearly one-quarter of all respondents reported speaking no English whatsoever.

Most legalized adults entered the United States after completing their schooling. Members of the pre-1982 cohort have an average of just 7 years of formal education. This has been a decided handicap in the relatively well-educated labor force of the United States. However, about 22 percent have received some formal schooling in the United States. During the 5 years following legalization, investments in language skills, education, and training were particularly widespread. About 12 percent earned credits toward a high school or higher degree; 16 percent attended vocational, trade, or business school. Most who invested in human capital following legalization sensed that it had had positive job-related consequences, e.g., increased responsibilities, a new position, or additional pay.

#### **Labor Market Behavior**

One of the basic tenets of immigration reform was that legal status would foster economic assimilation. The legalization surveys provide the only nationally representative empirical data with which to test this assumption. The richness of these data make it impossible to explore all aspects of this question in a single report. Nonetheless, several provisional findings are presented.

The first of these is that despite a downturn in the economy and growing competition for low-skilled jobs, legalized aliens have maintained very strong attachments to the labor market. Prime-aged legalized men have higher rates of labor force participation than most other groups of men, including not only minorities but whites. However, since legalization, participation rates have declined somewhat, particularly those of women.

The distribution of economic responsibility between men and women is less even in the legalized population than in the U.S. population at large. Legalized men are more likely than natives to hold jobs, while in recent years legalized women have been somewhat less likely to do so. The effects of the recession, compounded by growing parental responsibilities, may have contributed to women's declining work outside the home.

Secondly, by 1992, the likelihood of unemployment was higher for legalized than for other U.S. men—a reversal of the pattern seen prior to legalization. Unemployment rates of legalized women were relatively steady during this period, as a substantial share withdrew from the labor market.

Thirdly, over the span of their working lives in the United States, the job options of legalized aliens have been relatively limited. As illegal aliens, most found their first U.S. jobs in construction, restaurants, agriculture, manufacturing, or private households. Private households alone accounted for nearly one-fifth of the first jobs held. During these early years there appeared to be more "occupational churning" than systematic upward mobility. Legalization

fostered language and job training that began to alter this pattern. However, nearly 5 years after application for legalization, the majority of section 245A beneficiaries were still in the same short list of occupations and/or industries that had gained them entree into the U.S. labor market.

Looking at the occupations most frequently cited by each gender, it appears that women were more occupationally concentrated than men. In 1992, about 65 percent of working women as compared to just 42 percent of working men were employed in the top 15 occupations for legalized workers of their respective gender. Remarkably, these figures represented declines in occupational concentration since legalization.

While the occupations most commonly cited by the pre-1982 cohort are among the lowest paying in the U.S. economy, the picture is not uniformly bleak. Earnings profiles, which were relatively flat prior to legalization and bear the effects of the subsequent economic recession, have nonetheless risen. Most section 245A beneficiaries have experienced an increase in real wages since the late 1980s. This has been particularly true of English-proficient LPRs who have received language and/or job training since work authorization. The earnings of non-English-speaking LPRs have lagged far behind.

Legalized workers receive somewhat fewer employee benefits than do other U.S. workers. One reason is probably their concentration in exceptionally small businesses or solitary jobs. Most work in businesses with fewer than 50 employees. About 10 percent work alone, e.g., in private households. Survey data confirm that relatively few private household service workers receive benefits such as health insurance or paid vacations. Moreover, householders do not routinely withhold Social Security or other taxes from their employees' pay. During the period of observation, however, there has been a substantial drop in the share of workers in private household occupations—evidence of their movement out of the informal economy.

#### **Changes in Family Structure and Mobility**

The age structure of section 245A applicants dictated certain inevitable changes in family and household composition following legalization. Between the late 1980s and 1992, many members of this cohort entered first marriages and/or had additional children. Simultaneously, there was a sharp decline in the average number of other relatives and unrelated individuals living in their households, and a decrease in the number of seemingly undocumented members. By 1992, legalization households resembled the nuclear model more closely than they had 5 years before.

At the same time, legalization appears to have strengthened bonds between section 245A beneficiaries and their relatives abroad. In 1992, most legalized aliens still had some family members—parents, siblings, and occasionally spouses, children, grandparents, and/or grandchildren—still living outside the

United States. Between January 1991 and the date of the second survey (a period of 16 to 20 months), over half visited relatives abroad. Although average annual remittances declined following legalization, during 1991 more than half still remitted money and/or gifts to family or friends abroad.

#### **Naturalization and Future Immigration**

In 1992, the new LPRs reported having many relatives who intended to immigrate to the United States. Respondents were asked about various categories of relatives for whom they might petition. Of the relatives for whom they could possibly petition, either as LPRs or as U.S. citizens, an estimated 30 percent intended to immigrate. However, most of these would-be immigrants were parents and siblings who were ineligible to immigrate unless their legalized relatives first became U.S. citizens. Only 17 percent were spouses or unmarried offspring for whom pre-1982 LPRs could immediately petition.

Just what share of the section 245A beneficiaries will seek citizenship remains an open question. Mexican nationals, the largest component group, have not traditionally favored naturalization. Yet when asked to speculate about this issue, about half of the LPS2 respondents said they would definitely naturalize; another quarter thought they would probably do so. Groups whose U.S. labor market experiences were least favorable indicated the most ambivalence about seeking U.S. citizenship.

Early naturalization applications corroborate this survey finding. As the first wave of legalized aliens became eligible to apply between November 1993 and May 1994, the application rate of all other origin groups was six times that of the Mexican born.

#### **Economic Well-Being and the Use of Public Benefits**

During their first 5 years of legal residence, section 245A beneficiaries were required to demonstrate their self-sufficiency by foregoing most forms of Federal needs-based assistance. IRCA stipulated certain exceptions for emergency, maternal, and child health care. It did not prohibit children of legalized aliens from participating in the reduced-price school meals program. The record shows that because of low wages and expanding families, many legalization households had to avail themselves of these allowable services.

As the waiting period for public benefits neared its end in 1992, 3 out of every 5 legalization families reported having less than \$1,000 in liquid assets. Two out of every five families reported that none of their members had any form of private health insurance. One of every ten said that their home or apartment had no telephone. Rates of home and vehicle ownership were also relatively low.

As precarious as their average financial situation was in 1992, in some ways it represented an improvement over that in 1989. The earnings of many had risen

since legalization. Others with particularly marginal earnings had qualified for specific emergency, maternal, or child health care benefits permitted under the law. Roughly half had U.S.-born children. These children were often eligible for benefits even if their parents were not. About 23 percent of all families had at least one child enrolled in the reduced-price school lunch program.

The State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant program was established by the Congress to offset some of the fiscal repercussions of the legalization program. During the initial period when newly legalized aliens were ineligible for direct Federal assistance, SLIAG reimbursed State and local governments for a number of services provided to this population. Over a 7-year period, SLIAG funded \$3.5 billion in services—an average of \$1,167 per eligible legalized alien.

Administrative records indicate that 69 percent of the SLIAG-reimbursable expenditures concerned public assistance, over 90 percent of which took the form of medical assistance. Another 19 percent of SLIAG expenditures reimbursed educational services such as language and civics training, with smaller expenditures being made for public health.

The 5-year waiting period for Federal benefits remained in effect at the time of the 1992 survey. The LPS2 data suggest that at that time even employed LPRs often lived very modestly. Many earned too little to afford nationally accepted standards of nutrition for their families. Given family structure, assets, income, and expenses itemized in LPS2, the Food and Consumer Service (FCS) estimates that, in 1992, 27 percent of all legalization households met the means test for Food Stamp eligibility.

The FCS also examined this population's actual FSP participation at the end of the waiting period, in 1994. Looking at administrative records in eight key States, FCS found that 13 percent of the legalized population in those States were receiving Food Stamp benefits in 1994. Although a disproportionate share of legalization households qualified for benefits, the proportion of households claiming benefits for which they qualified was *smaller* in this population than in either the overall U.S., or the Hispanic, population.

#### Conclusions

Identifying the impacts of IRCA's legalization program will take time and rigorous analysis. This report is an initial step in that direction, providing important new data on the population legalized under section 245A of the INA.

Four to five years following legalization, the composite picture of section 245A beneficiaries was that of a cohort strongly attached to the labor market. The participation rates of legalized men substantially exceeded those of U.S. white males. Their rate of investment in education and training had virtually doubled since applying for legalization. However, despite their obvious ambition to

work, financial resources were quite limited. Many legalized women had withdrawn from the workforce to care for growing families. The number of other adults with whom their families could share household costs was declining as relatives and friends moved out of their living units. Even so, half of all households still included multiple earners. On tight budgets, conveniences such as automobiles and telephones were more out of reach to legalized aliens than to most other Americans.

This population's determination to succeed, and to do so within the law, is evident throughout the LPS data. By 1992, most who worked did so "on the books," paying Federal, State, and Social Security taxes. Significantly, as they became eligible for Food Stamp benefits, they were not exceptionally prone to utilize this newfound entitlement. Administrative records showed that among households qualifying for Food Stamps, pre-1982 units were *less* likely than other units, including Hispanics, to claim such benefits.

The majority of legalized aliens express interest in becoming U.S. citizens and eventually retiring in this country. However, work authorization notwithstanding, section 245A beneficiaries still face extraordinary obstacles to achieving the American dream. Their experiences, highlighted by the legalization surveys, once more underscore the dilemma of this Nation's working poor.

### **CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION**

#### The Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986

The Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 (IRCA) granted temporary legal residence to about 1.7 million illegal aliens who had begun living in the United States on a continuous basis prior to January 1, 1982. About 1.6 million of these applicants have since become lawful permanent residents and are now becoming eligible for U.S. citizenship.

Legalization was intended to bring the undocumented workers who had contributed to the U.S. economy "out of the shadows" and to clear the slate for implementing IRCA's work authorization provisions. The program was considered a success because it reached the majority of unauthorized aliens, mainly due to the Immigration and Naturalization Service's (INS) able execution and collaboration with community groups. However, the question remains as to whether legalization per se favorably affected the economic lives of these workers.

IRCA, which represented a compromise among the many interests involved, isolated three separate issues, each of which entailed its own strategy for change. The new law sought to (1) reduce the number of aliens illegally resident in the United States, (2) impede further unlawful entries, and (3) penalize U.S. employers for knowingly hiring unauthorized aliens. The mechanisms set forth to accomplish these goals included granting lawful permanent residence to a large component of the illegally resident population, increasing border enforcement, and establishing mandatory verification procedures to help employers determine the work-eligibility of new employees. Noncompliance with work authorization verification would result in monetary sanctions.

Four groups of aliens who were or had been illegally resident in the United States were eligible to apply for legalization. The largest group encompassed those who had lived continuously in the United States, without authorization, since before January 1, 1982 ("the pre-1982 cohort"). Terms of the legalization program for these aliens were spelled out in section 245A of the Immigration

Although this term will be used in reference to aliens legalized under section 245A, it is important to recognize that many members of the undocumented cohort arriving prior to 1982 did not actually participate in this program.

and Nationality Act (INA). Section 210 set forth somewhat different provisions for Special Agricultural Workers (SAWs), i.e., illegal aliens who had worked in U.S. agriculture for 90 days or more in the year ending May 1, 1986. Section 202 established procedures for legalizing certain persons with the immigration designation of Cuban or Haitian Entrant, while section 203 updated the registry date (qualifying all unlawful residents for eligibility) to January 1, 1972.

This report focuses on the pre-1982 residents who legalized under section 245A of INA. Although the new law entitled these long-term residents to apply for legalization, it did not confer immediate lawful permanent resident (LPR) status on those who chose to do so. Instead, during phase I of the program, successful applicants were granted temporary resident alien (TRA) status for up to 42 months, during which time they could work legally while completing applications for lawful permanent residence. The subsequent phase II applications, leading to LPR status and a "green card," required the applicant to be in TRA status a minimum of 18 months and demonstrate some basic knowledge of the English language and of U.S. history and government.

The 1-year application period for temporary residence ran from May 5, 1987, through May 4, 1988. During phase I, nearly 1.8 million persons applied under section 245A. Of these, 1.7 million were granted temporary resident alien status and about 1.6 million ultimately received lawful permanent residence.<sup>3</sup>

The legalization program was expected to serve various goals of Federal, State, and local governments while also improving the well-being of program beneficiaries. Legalization enabled the Federal Government to dramatically reduce the number of undocumented aliens in the United States without requiring an expensive and difficult deportation program. Secondly, legalization enabled Federal authorities to integrate millions of legalized aliens into the Federal, State, and local tax systems by, among other things, offering to straighten out their Social Security accounts. Thirdly, it was believed that diminishing workplace vulnerability would improve wages and working conditions not only for the newly legalized but for other U.S. workers as well. Finally, at the local level, it was hoped that English language and civics courses would foster greater social integration.

Other practical benefits of IRCA's legalization pregram were the chance to learn more about the undocumented population and to evaluate the social and economic significance of acquiring legal status. Toward this end, IRCA's section 404 mandated that the Administration submit two reports focusing on the experiences and impacts of persons legalized under section 245A.

About 1.1 million aliens qualified as SAWs. Although no national surveys have focused specifically on this population, they are represented in the National Agricultural Workers Survey (OASP, 1991).

At the time of the 1992 survey, 100,000 applications had been denied and another 106,000 were still pending.

The first of these reports, Immigration Reform and Control Act: Report on the Legalized Alien Population, was prepared by the Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service (DOJ/INS) and submitted to the Congress in 1992 (INS, 1992). That report presented data from the first Legalized Population Survey (LPS1), a national survey of 6,193 persons who had applied for temporary resident alien status by January 31, 1989. The report described this group's characteristics and behavior prior to and at the time of initial application. Among the wide array of issues covered were English proficiency, educational attainment, method of illegal U.S. entry, labor market behavior, family composition, health, use of social services, and monies remitted abroad.

The present report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act, focuses on section 245A applicants who completed phase II of the program and actually received lawful permanent resident status. It examines the social and economic status of this population an average of about 4 1/2 years following their initial application for legalization. Data for this report are drawn from both LPS1 and the Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2), a reinterview of 4,012 LPS1 respondents who had been granted lawful permanent residence by January 1992. Other sources include administrative records of the DOJ's INS, the Department of Health and Human Services' State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program (DHHS/SLIAG), and the Department of Agriculture's Food and Consumer Service (USDA/FCS).

#### Background

In late 1978, Congress passed legislation establishing the Select Commission on Immigration and Refugee Policy (SCIRP) to evaluate U.S. immigration policy and recommend reform priorities. The impetus for the formation of SCIRP was a growing perception that illegal migration to the United States was out of control. After 2 years of intense deliberations, the Select Commission issued its report in 1981. Among the Commission's recommendations to stem the flow of illegal entries were sanctions against those who knowingly employed undocumented workers and concurrent legalization of illegal aliens resident in the United States.

The Commission had considered two alternate methods for reducing the number of illegally resident aliens: (1) locating and deporting somewhere between 3 and 12 million illegal aliens or (2) establishing procedures to enable certain members of this population to become legal residents. Deportation appeared to be the mohibitively costly and unworkable. Therefore, the Select Commission recommended that aliens continuously resident in the country since January 1, 1980 be allowed to legalize.

Speculative claims ranged as high as 12 million, while estimates based on empirical evidence suggested a figure of between 3 and 6 million in 1986 (Bean et al., 1990; Passel and Woodrow, 1984 and 1987).

The Congressional dialogue on these recommendations was both heated and lengthy, culminating in passage of the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986. The new law implemented versions of both employer sanctions and legalization provisions, advancing the threshold date for admissions to January 1, 1982. The IRCA legalization program contained two major parts. The first, detailed in section 245A of the INA, addressed long-term illegal residents. The second, detailed in section 210 of the INA, covered certain farm workers.

IRCA restricted the notion of legalization by requiring long-term residents to (1) undergo a period of temporary legal resident status, (2) demonstrate some knowledge of both the English language and U.S. Government as a prerequisite to lawful permanent residence, and (3) refrain from using most needs-based Federal assistance benefits for at least 5 years.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service made a concerted effort to quell fears of contact with the INS and to encourage participation in the legalization program. Building on a Select Commission recommendation, the INS solicited community-based organizations with networks to the immigrant population to serve as intake points for applications. It granted Qualified Designated Entity (QDE) status to over 900 such organizations, without which the program could not have reached this highly diverse population.

The INS mounted a public relations program in English, Spanish, and, to a lesser extent, other languages. This program aimed at reaching applicants through the printed and broadcast media, as well as other less traditional methods. To improve access, INS opened 107 legalization offices, mostly store-front operations in convenient locations.

#### **Section 245A Legalized Aliens**

The aliens who applied for legalization under section 245A were a distinct subset of the undocumented population. They are not fully representative of illegal residents in the 1980s, much less of today's undocumented aliens. Without accurate data on the underlying population, it is impossible to make precise comparisons. However, it is clear that many of those illegally resident in the United States prior to 1982 could not, or did not, apply through this program. The section 245A cohort consisted of:

- (a) illegal aliens resident on January 1, 1982, minus
- (b) those who emigrated between January 1982 and the beginning of the legalization period, minus
- (c) those who adjusted status during this period, minus
- (d) those who died during this period, minus

- (e) those who did not qualify due to breaks in residence, inability to document continuous residence, or other factors, minus
- (f) those who elected not to apply.

One attribute of the legalization cohort that may have differed from that of the remaining undocumented population is its composition by national origin. Warren and Passel (1987) used 1980 census data to deduce the size and composition of the undocumented population resident at that time. About half of those whose residence could not be explained through birth or lawful migration were found to be Mexican nationals. Yet, about 70 percent of all section 245A applications and about 81 percent of those received through the SAW program were submitted by Mexican nationals. Several hypotheses have been offered to explain this disparity. Compared with other undocumented aliens, Mexicans may have been harder to enumerate in 1980, slower to emigrate or adjust status thereafter (and hence more likely to be eligible), or simply more willing or able to legalize.

For whatever reason, Mexican nationals obviously dominated the applicant pool. It bears noting that, even among undocumented Mexicans, pre-1982 applicants differed noticeably from SAWs and probably also from those who remained undocumented.

Hence this report deals with a unique population: the long-term illegally resident aliens who took advantage of IRCA's invitation to adjust status, were able to demonstrate continuous unauthorized residence in the United States beginning prior to 1982, and were thereby granted lawful permanent resident status.

#### The State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program

While this volume looks primarily at legalization's effects on individuals, the program's fiscal impacts are also important. One source of information on program costs is the administrative records of the State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program (SLIAG). SLIAG was established to reimburse States and localities for certain costs of providing services to eligible legalized aliens (ELAs) during the period in which needy legalization applicants could not apply for assistance from Federal social service programs.

The window of eligibility under SLIAG began on the date of the individual's adjustment to temporary legal status, which INS interpreted to be the date of application for adjustment. It coincided with the waiting period for Federal assistance programs, e.g., Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Medicaid, and the Food Stamp Program (FSP). Certain costs incurred by States between May 1987 and September 1994 on behalf of ELAs were reimbursable under SLIAG.

A total of \$4 billion was appropriated to defray Federal, State, and local costs on behalf of the pre-1982 cohort during the waiting period. Approximately \$3.5 billion was ultimately made available to State and local governments during the 7 years that this program was operational. These expenditures covered some of the most basic medical and educational needs encountered by legalizing individuals.

#### The Second Report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act

Unlike the first Report on the Legalized Alien Population, the second report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act, consists of three volumes. The current volume was prepared by the Department of Labor's (DOL) Bureau of International Labor Affairs. This volume presents socioeconomic information on the legalized population, including an extensive profile of their labor market behavior since application. It also includes administrative data from the Immigration and Naturalization Service as well as brief summaries of the SLIAG and Food Stamp findings detailed in the accompanying DHHS and USDA volumes, listed below:

Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families: Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant Program, Final Report, 1995.

Department of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Service, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Impact of the Legalization Program on the Food Stamp Program.

The primary data source for the current volume is the Legalized Population Follow-up Survey, which was conducted between April and September of 1992. When linked to its predecessor, the first Legalized Population Survey, this file provides more than a decade of longitudinal information on the demographic, economic, and social behavior of aliens who were granted lawful permanent residence under section 245A of the INA.<sup>5</sup>

This report begins, in Chapter 2, with the most recent data from the INS Legalization Application Processing System (LAPS). Final application counts and their resolution, for both the section 245A (pre-1982) and section 210 (SAW) legalization programs are discussed.

Chapter 3 uses legalization survey data to expand the profile of those granted lawful permanent residence under section 245A. In addition, it highlights

This is the only randomly drawn survey of the section 245A legalized population. However, a number of States have conducted nonrandom studies of legalized residents. See California State Department of Education (1990), California Human Development Corporation (1988, 1989), Plascencia (1991), Schilit and Nimnicht (1992), Schilit (1992), and Maryland Department of Human Resources (1988).

post-legalization changes in age, marital status, English language skills, and formal and vocational education—factors likely to influence labor market outcomes.

Chapter 4 explores IRCA's labor market outcomes, including changes in labor force participation, industry and occupation of employment. Chapter 4 also examines new information about the enterprises in which LPRs work, their wages, benefits, and certain measures of possible "off the books" employment.

The issues of international mobility and family structure are considered in Chapter 5. Topics covered include changes in family composition since application, the frequency of travel abroad, the potential for future family reunification, and intentions to naturalize.

Chapter 6 profiles the economic well-being of legalized aliens and their families shortly before IRCA's social service waiting period came to an end. This chapter looks at Federal expenditures for Medicaid and certain other public assistance programs through SLIAG, health insurance coverage, family income, and use of the social services for which members were already eligible. It also looks at the share of legalized households who met the means test for Food Stamp eligibility in 1992 and early assessments of the extent to which those households were participating in the Food Stamp Program by 1994.

Conclusions are set forth in Chapter 7. Appendix A presents supporting tabular data while Appendix B contains a glossary of key terms used in this report. Appendix C provides information on sampling, data collection and the unweighted sample. References appear in Appendix D, while a copy of the LPS2 survey questionnaire can be found in Appendix E.

# CHAPTER 2. LEGALIZATION DATA FROM THE IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION SERVICE

Initially, the immigration reform legislation of the 1980s sought to establish a single legalization program for long-term illegal residents. Shortly prior to IRCA's enactment, however, the Special Agricultural Worker provisions were added to the bill. In the rush to pass this important legislation, some of its provisions concerning the pre-1982 program were not broadened to encompass SAW applicants.

One such provision was section 404, mandating that "[t]he President shall transmit to Congress two reports on the legalization program established under section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act." Today, interest in the impacts of legalization necessarily spans both programs. Consequently, although subsequent chapters focus on the pre-1982 cohort, this report begins by comparing and contrasting the aliens who applied for legalization under sections 245A and 210 of the INA.

#### **INS Administrative Data**

Data for this chapter are drawn from the INS Legalization Application Processing System, maintenance of which was discontinued in August 1992 after most applications had been processed. The small number of cases processed since that date are not included in the official counts below.

Applications and their outcomes. Table 2.1 details total legalization applications received under sections 245A and 210, together with their outcomes. At the time the LAPS system was discontinued in 1992, the INS had processed 3,040,948 legalization applications. About 88 percent of the pre-1982 applicants and 84 percent of the SAWs had been granted lawful permanent residence.

Several groups considered to be ineligible by the INS are still pursuing class action lawsuits to gain authorization to apply for legalization under IRCA.

By the end of FY94, the latest date for which figures are available, 90 percent of section 245A and 85 percent of section 210 applicants had attained LPR status.

Table 2.1. Total Applications by IRCA Legalization Program and Outcome

Status as of August 1992	Total	Section 245A (Pre-1982)	Section 210 (SAW)
Total Applications*	3,040,948	1,763,434	1,277,514
Percent	100	58	42
Resolution			
Acceptance	2,634,662	1,558,102	1,076,560
Phase I (TRA)	ь	1,660,157°	b
Phase II (LPR)	ь	1,558,102	ь
Case Pending	123,936	111,261	18,370
Phase I	ь	5,695	b
Phase II	b	105,566	ь
Denied	282,350	99,766	182,584
Phase I	b	97.582	b
Phase II	ь	2,184	ь
Percent of Applications			
Total	100	100	100
Accepted	87	88	84
Case Pending	4	6	2
Denied	9	6	14

a Applicants of all ages.

Source: Legalization Application Processing System (LAPS) files through August 12, 1992.

Residence of applicants. The geographic dispersion of applicants differed somewhat between programs, as is evident in Appendix table 2A. Participants in both programs were geographically concentrated in the agricultural States of California, Texas, New York, Illinois, Florida, and Arizona. Over half of all applicants in each program resided in California, while 18 percent of the pre-1982 cohort and 11 percent of all SAW applicants resided in Texas. However, in certain States, e.g., North Carolina, Oregon, and Washington, most undocumented aliens who sought legalization did so through the SAW program. Elsewhere, as in California, Texas, Illinois, and New York, the pre-1982 cohort dominated applicant flow.

Countries of origin. There were also disparities with respect to place of origin. Appendix table 2B identifies 28 countries from which more than 5,000 aliens applied. Columns 3 and 7 of this table show applicants under the pre-1982 and SAW programs, respectively. Fully 70 percent of pre-1982 applicants and over 81 percent of SAWs originated in Mexico.

This table highlights the distinct economic roles played by illegal aliens from various countries. Unauthorized Haitian, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, and Brazilian entrants had contacts within the agricultural sector, which gave them entree through the SAW program. Most applicants from Canada, El Salvador,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Only the section 245A program involved two phases.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Provisional acceptance.

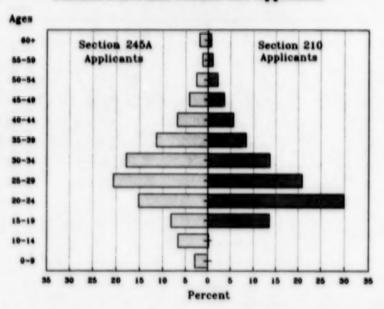


Figure 2.1 Age Distribution at Application: Section 245A and Section 210 Applicants

Honduras, Nicaragua, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, Argentina, the Philippines, Iran, Mainland China, Nigeria, Ghana, Canada, Poland, and the United Kingdom sought entry under the section 245A provisions—suggesting they had been resident longer and were more industrially diversified. Only two of the major sending countries, Mexico and Korea, had roughly similar numbers of applicants under the two programs.

Age distribution of applicants. Figure 2.1 shows that there were also noticeable disparities in the age distribution of program applicants. Most children and elderly illegal aliens were precluded from the SAW program by its requirement of recent work experience in U.S. agriculture. Yet because SAW applicants only had to demonstrate 3 months of qualifying work during the previous year, rather than several years of continuous residence, this program was open to many aliens who could not qualify under section 245A.

Most who applied as SAWs were young adults, especially in their early 20s. Only 4 percent were less than 18 years of age, the majority of these being 17. The pre-1982 program had no work and few implicit age requirements. About 17 percent of section 245A applicants were above the age of 39, and over 14 percent were minor children, 9 out of 10 of them younger than 17.

While examining age structure, it is useful to consider differences between the age profile of all section 245A applicants and that of the weighted sample of

Because of the residency requirement, children born outside the United States after December 31, 1981 did not qualify.

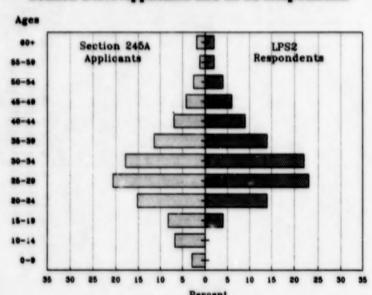


Figure 2.2 Age Distribution at Application: Section 245A Applicants and LPS2 Respondents

LPRs whose experiences are discussed in this report. Figure 2.2 shows that the survey sample was truncated in the lower age range. To be selected for the first survey, respondents had to have reached the age of 18 by the time that survey began in February 1989. This decision also shaped the LPS2 follow-up sample. Hence, figure 2.2 shows that relative to the full legalizing population, a somewhat larger share of the LPS2 sample is concentrated in ages 25 and above.

#### Summary

As of August 15, 1992, over 3 million legalization applications had been processed yielding nearly 1.6 million lawful permanent residents under the pre-1982 provisions and more than 1.0 million under the SAW provisions of the INA. LAPS data show a number of important distinctions between the attributes of pre-1982 and SAW applicants.

One obvious difference is duration of U.S. residence. Another collateral difference is age. Because of their longer U.S. residence, section 245A applicants are, on average, somewhat older than SAWs. This increased the relative likelihood of their living with nuclear families. Application data show them to be somewhat more geographically and educationally diverse than their SAW counterparts.

These differences limit our ability to generalize from the experiences of section 245A applicants to those of Special Agricultural Workers. Nonetheless, the size and relative diversity of the pre-1982 cohort, coupled with our ability to track its experiences over time, should provide valuable, broadly applicable insights.

# CHAPTER 3. SOCIOECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE LEGALIZED POPULATION

This chapter uses legalization survey data to look more closely at the characteristics of aliens granted lawful permanent residence under section 245A of the INA. Particular attention is given to changes in these characteristics since legalization.

#### Who Are The "Legalized Aliens"?

The subject of the first legalization report was aliens who had applied for temporary resident alien status under section 245A. The individuals involved had lived in the United States continuously, without authorization, beginning prior to 1982. They had also been willing to file an application, and had been able to understand and complete the paperwork this process entailed. Many illegal aliens did not apply under this program, including children born abroad since 1981, recent illegal entrants (some of whom applied through the SAW program), those with intermittent residence, and those authorized to reside in the United States for some period after January 1, 1982.

However, the first Report on the Legalized Alien Population set its focus even more narrowly. The sampling frame for the underlying first Legalized Population Survey excluded minor children, those who had not received temporary resident status by the time the survey began in February, 1989, those applying outside of the contiguous 48 States, and those who left the country or died after applying for adjustment of status.

The Legalized Population Follow-up Survey, on which this volume is based, was further restricted. To be included in the LPS2 sample, respondents had to have responded to the previous survey, been granted lawful permanent residence by January 1992, and remained alive and resident in the contiguous 48 States through the date of the second survey.

Thus LPS estimates represent just 1.3 million of the 1.6 million persons who actually received lawful permanent residence through section 245A. The remainder of these successful phase II applicants were under the age of 21, dead or living outside the contiguous 48 States at the time of LPS2, or were still awaiting decisions on their phase II applications when the sample was drawn in January 1992.

Because this report examines changes in behavior, it has been necessary to compare the same individuals' records before and after legalization. Hence, for purposes of analysis the data file has been restricted to the 4,012 respondents who participated in both legalization surveys. Because of this restriction, some of the LPS1 estimates in this report may differ slightly from estimates shown in the previous report, based on the full sample.

Certain attributes of legalized adults are essentially fixed. Some of these, shown in table 3.1, include their gender, place of origin, and date and age at arrival in the United States. Although this aggregate profile reflects the traits of long-resident illegal aliens, it is also affected by differential patterns of emigration, status adjustment prior to 1987, and program participation.

Gender. The sex ratio of the population eligible for legalization is unknown. Hence, it is unclear whether applicants were representative of the base population in this regard. About 44 percent of all pre-1982 legalized aliens were women. There are at least two ways in which the program's 5 year residency requirement could have influenced this sex ratio.

This requirement might have bolstered female eligibility relative to that of males. Undocumented men were more likely than their female counterparts to maintain and visit families abroad. Since their U.S. residence would have been discontinuous, such migrants would not have been eligible to apply. The fact that a majority of legalization applicants reported just one entry into the United States lends support to the idea that aliens circulating between their home country and the United States may have been less prone to apply through this program.

Conversely, among those technically eligible, the 5 year residency requirement could have bolstered male participation relative to that of females. Undocumented men were more likely than women to hold jobs that generated a paper trail. In her study of Guatemalans in Houston, Hagan (1994) found that many female applicants had difficulty documenting their domestic service jobs, for which pay stubs and tax records seldom existed. Rental receipts and utility bills, that might also have verified their residence, frequently listed the name of a male household head. Hagan therefore surmised that, at least among Guatemalan applicants, women may have been relatively underrepresented.

Method of entry. This table also shows that a sizeable majority (75 percent) of those who legalized under section 245A had entered the United States without inspection (EWI). The remainder entered on temporary nonimmigrant visas obtained from U.S. consulates abroad, violating the terms of their admission by staying past the authorized date or by working illegally. About 85 percent of Mexican and Central American applicants had entered without inspection, while 73 percent of migrants from other countries (hereafter designated Other Countries) were nonimmigrant overstayers.

Table 3.1. Weighted Distribution of Section 245A Legalized Adults by Gender, Place of Origin, Date, and Age at Arrival

Characteristic	Legalized Adults (percent)
Legalized Adults (number)	
Unweighted	4,012
Weighted	1,294,562
Sex	
Total	100
Male	56
Female	44
Region of Origin	
Total	100
Mexico.	69
Central America.	15
Canada	1
Other Western Hemisphere	7
Other	8
Period of Arrival	
Total	100
Before 1975	22
1975-1979	39
1980 or later	39
Median year of arrival	1979
Age at Arrival	
Total	100
17 or less	31
18 to 24	38
25 to 34	21
35 or more	10
Median age at arrival	22
Method of Entry by Country of Origin	
Total	100
Entered without documents	75
Nonimmigrant overstay	25
Mexico	100
Entered without documents	85
Nonimmigrant overstay	15
Central America	100
Entered without documents	86
Nonimmigrant overstay	14
All Other Countries	100
Entered without documents	27
Nonimmigrant overstay	73

Note: Some percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized Population Survey (LPS1) restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2). Persons ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Table 3.2. Age, Educational Attainment, English-Speaking Ability, and Place of Residence: Legalized and U.S. Adults

Characteristic	Legalized /	U.S. Adults' (percent)	
	At Application <sup>b</sup>	1992	1990
Age			
Total, ages 18 and above	100	100	100
18-19	4	•	4
20-29	37	22	21
20-24	14	6	10
25-29	23	16	11
30-39	36	45	23
30-34	22	24	12
35-39	14	21	11
40 and above	23	33	52
40-44	9	13	10
45-49	6	8	7
50-54	4	5	6
55-59	2	3	6
60 and above	2	4	23
Median age	32	36	40
Years of Schooling Completed <sup>c</sup>			
Total	100	100	100
0 to 4	25	22	3
5 to 8	35	33	8
9 to 11	14	16	14
12 (high school graduate)	15	14	30
13 or more (beyond high school)	12	15	45
English Language Skills			
Total	100	100	NA
Interview conducted in:			
Spanish or Spanish/English	85	81	NA
Other	15	19	NA
Percent able to speak English			• • • •
	65	71	NA
with sales clerk	63	68	NA
The same and the s	60	71	NA
on telephone	00	/1	MA
Place of U.S. Residence			
Total	100	100	100
California	58	58	12
Техаз	13	13	7
New York	7	7	7
Other	21	22	74

NA: Not available.

Note: Some percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Source: Legalized aliens (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. data (1990 Census).

<sup>\*</sup> Legalized aliens ages 16 and above by January 1987; U.S. adults ages 18 to 64.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Educational attainment of population ages 25 and above.

Duration of residence and age. By the early 1990s, most legalized aliens had been in the United States for the better part of their adult worklives. Half had arrived in this country for the first time by 1979. Their median age at arrival was 22 years. About 69 percent arrived before their 25th birthday, 31 percent before the age of 18. Because of their youthful arrival, 43 percent did not work prior to U.S. entry. About 22 percent attended some formal schooling in the United States.

Table 3.2 shows that 73 percent of adult applicants were between the ages of 20 and 39 when they applied for legalization under section 245A. Their median age was 32. Over the next 4 to 5 years, cohort members moved squarely into the prime working ages and often into the parental phase of life. This had direct implications for their economic and social behavior, which are discussed in Chapters 4 through 6.

Region of origin. Figure 3.1 and Appendix table 3A show that nationals of Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala and other Central American countries dominated the applicant pool. Together they made up 83 percent of initial applicants and 84 percent of those granted lawful permanent residence—a substantially larger proportion than had been anticipated based on the 1980 census. Although it is unclear why such a large share were from Mexico and Central America, there are several possible explanations.

The first of these is census undercount. Undocumented aliens from Mexico and Central America may have been particularly diligent about evading census enumeration. If so, expectations based on the 1980 census would have discounted their relative presence in the undocumented population.

Secondly, many of those illegally resident in 1980 lost their eligibility for this program by adjusting status or emigrating before IRCA went into effect in 1987. If Mexicans and Central Americans were unusually slow to take these steps, a disproportionate share would have remained eligible to apply.

Thirdly, participation rates may have differed from one eligible group to another. The availability of a common language—Spanish—may have increased the relative efficiency of outreach efforts within the Hispanic community (Baker, 1990).

Finally, implementation decisions may also have played a role. Aliens who entered the United States without inspection were clearly targeted for legalization. However, it took several months to clarify the eligibility of nonimmigrant overstayers. During this period, most applicants were EWIs—primarily from Mexico and Central America. As the INS broadened its regulations, other

<sup>10</sup> The actual composition of the eligible population is, of course, unknown. Of those whose presence in the 1980 census could not be explained through birth or migration records, roughly half were Mexican nationals (Warren and Passel, 1987).

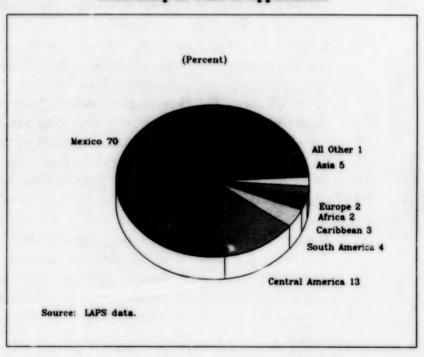


Figure 3.1 Section 245A Legalized Aliens by Citizenship at Time of Application

nationalities responded in larger numbers. Nonetheless, slow initial response may have reduced their eventual representation.

In any case, Appendix table 3B shows that the human capital endowments of cohort members from various regions differed considerably, making origin an important control variable. Most entrants from Central America and Mexico have exceptionally limited educational credentials, which have handicapped them in the U.S. labor market. The formal schooling of LPRs from Other Countries more closely resembles that of U.S. natives, increasing the likelihood that they will succeed economically.

For a variety of reasons, including those already noted, only 17 percent of program beneficiaries were from Canada, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, or Oceania. Evidence of the economic progress of these smaller groups is easily swamped in aggregate legalization statistics. Therefore this report separately displays the experiences of Mexicans, Central Americans, and entrants from all Other Countries."

LPS2 data identify migrants who travelled from or through various Mexican states on their way to the United States. Nearly one-quarter (23 percent) of all LPR recipients under section 245A were born in the Mexican States of Jalisco

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> For weighted and unweighted counts by region, see Appendix C.

or Michoacan. Another 18 percent were born in the States of Guanajuato or Zacatecas. It appears that more resided in Mexico prior to U.S. entry than had actually been born there. About 8 percent of those who arrived from other countries prior to 1982 appeared to have used Mexico as a staging ground for their entry to the United States.

The survey also provides additional detail on the communities of longest residence abroad. Slightly fewer than half of all legalized aliens came from urban or suburban locations (38 and 9 percent, respectively). The majority were from villages or rural areas (34 and 19 percent, respectively).

Region of residence. About 58 percent of all legalized aliens reside in California, another 13 percent in Texas. Because networks of communication between sending and receiving communities are often well-established, the ethnic composition of legalized residents varies considerably from State to State. Appendix tables 3A and 3B show that a disproportionate share of those living in California and Texas are from Mexico or Central America. Those in New York and other States are more likely to be natives of other Western Hemisphere and Eastern Hemisphere nations.

English language skills. Although the legalized cohort includes nationals from over 185 countries, the majority share a common language. About 85 percent report that the language they speak best is Spanish. Having a common language has both empowered and constrained Hispanic LPRs. Initially, being able to communicate with other Latin Americans and Hispanic natives probably eased their transition into American life. Coethnic employment often provided ready access to the U.S. labor market. However, over the long run, confinement to Spanish-speaking sectors may have inhibited the acquisition of valuable English language skills (Chiswick and Miller, 1992).

Entrants who could not tap into broad-based language networks may have been forced to confront the possibility of linguistic isolation. Differentials in the need to use English may help explain observed patterns of English language acquisition within the legalized population.

In both surveys, respondents were asked to evaluate their own English-speaking skills. As recently as 1992, just 36 percent of all legalized adults reported speaking English at home or being able to speak it well or very well, our standard for "English proficiency." Appendix table 3C shows the corresponding figures were just 27 percent for those from Mexico, 38 percent for those from Central America, and 72 percent for those from Other Countries.

Legalized men reported greater levels of English proficiency than legalized women. Youth were substantially more fluent in English than were older LPRs. Those who arrived as children and/or remained in school longest were most likely to have become English proficient. This proficiency was associated with a higher likelihood of employment.

To foster linguistic and social integration, the Congress established certain prerequisites for lawful permanent residence under section 245A. Phase II applicants had to demonstrate basic knowledge of the English language and U.S. civics. They were permitted to satisfy this requirement either by direct testing or by attending 40 hours of classroom training. Tests and training were modeled after those used for naturalization, with standards lowered to accommodate the legalization cohort (ACF, 1991).

Most adult phase II applicants, including 70 percent of LPS2 respondents, attended classroom training. Though not subject to this requirement, a substantial number of SAWs also enrolled. Training or testing nearly 2 million applicants in less than 4 years was a mammoth undertaking—particularly in light of their initial language skills. A study of applicants enrolling for the California English training program found that "an overwhelming number of these amnesty students would clearly be unable to function successfully [in English] in the workplace, job training programs, or the community at large" (California State Department of Education, 1990). 12 Forty hours of classroom training could do little to alter this situation.

Despite their satisfaction of the English requirement and the fact that nearly a third (31 percent) completed additional English training, gains in proficiency between 1989 and 1992 were negligible. The share highly proficient in English was unchanged between the two surveys, at about 15 percent. Upon direct questioning in 1992, after more than a decade of continuous U.S. residence, 22 percent of legalized adults said they still spoke no English whatsoever.

Nonetheless, when asked about their ability to use English under specific circumstances if necessary, many reported some improvement in their oral language skills. Table 3.2 shows that in the 5 years since legalization, the share able to speak with health care providers or teachers when necessary rose from 63 to 68 percent. The share able to talk on the telephone rose from 60 to 71 percent.

Appendix table 3D suggests that inability or reticence to communicate in English may have kept many legalized adults from working. Although 82 percent of those fluent in English held jobs, this was true of just 61 percent of non-English-speaking LPRs.

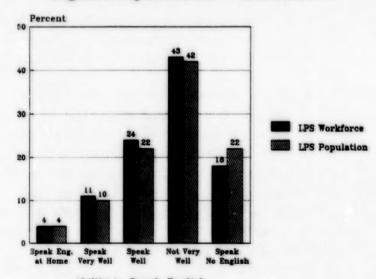
Less than 15 percent were judged proficient enough in English to speak on the telephone, follow simple directions in a building or on a street, read basic warning or safety signs, or fill out a simple job application.

Fifteen percent of respondents identified English as their best language in 1989. In 1992, 4 percent said they spoke primarily English at home. Another 10.5 percent said they could speak the language "very well."

The employed were thus somewhat more fluent in English than nonworkers, a fact that is evident in figure 3.2. Figure 3.3 displays workers' assessments of how frequently they used the language at work. Contrasting the two figures, it is clear that while the majority rated their English skills as relatively weak, two-thirds conducted half or more of their workplace interactions in the English language.

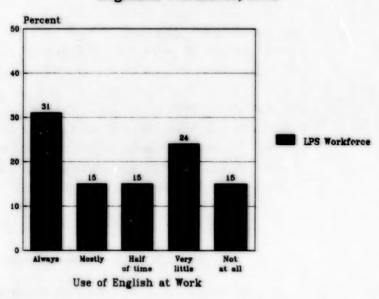
Asked to assess how greatly their job opportunities were limited by their English-speaking skills (relative to those of U.S. natives), 38 percent of

Figure 3.2 Ability to Speak English: Legalized Population and Workforce, 1992



Ability to Speak English

Figure 3.3 Use of English at Work: Legalized Workforce, 1992



nonworkers and 25 percent of all workers responded "a great deal." But Appendix table 3C indicates their perceived job limitations due to language were only weakly related to speaking skills. About 35 percent of those who claimed to speak English relatively well still felt their speaking skills were a handicap to job opportunities. Conversely, 22 percent of those who could speak no English whatsoever felt this did not pose any limitation to their job opportunities.

One reason for this anomaly may have been the moderating role of coethnic employment. In 1992, 53 percent of those who identified themselves as Hispanic said their coworkers were also primarily Hispanic. Of these coethnically-employed workers, 54 percent got by with little or no English on the job. In such settings, reticence or inability to communicate in English would pose little perceptible barrier to work. Those from non-Spanish-speaking countries may have found fewer job opportunities in their own language. They were more likely to work side-by-side with U.S. natives, where English was mandatory.<sup>14</sup>

Educational attainment. Four out of five legalized adults completed whatever schooling they would receive prior to entering the United States. Their educational attainment therefore reflected standards in the home country prior to 1979. At that time, many sending countries did not require youth to remain in school to the age of 16, as is mandatory in the United States. Hence, the educational profile of legalized aliens stands in marked contrast to that of U.S. natives. The magnitude of this disparity is evident in figure 3.4, which focuses on persons 25 years of age and older. In this age range, persons who were at least high school graduates made up just 28 percent of all legalized aliens, as compared with 59 percent of Hispanic immigrants, 65 percent of black natives, 78 percent of Hispanic natives, and 81 percent of all non-Hispanic native whites. A striking 55 percent of legalized aliens above the age of 24 had never entered high school. This is more than double the figure for the group they most closely resembled, foreign-born Hispanics.

Data show that one-quarter of the legalized cohort did not complete elementary school. Another 20 percent left at the end of the 6th grade. Such credentials clearly limit their ability to compete for jobs with better-educated U.S. workers.

The educational deficit was particularly severe in the groups with the most limited English skills: Mexican and Central American LPRs. Only 17 and 31 percent of these individuals, respectively, had completed high school. These groups faced more imposing economic barriers than did legalized aliens from Other Countries, of whom nearly three-quarters had completed high school.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> For instance, 30 percent of legalized Asians reported working with whites, as compared with just 27 percent who worked primarily with other Asians, of any nationality.

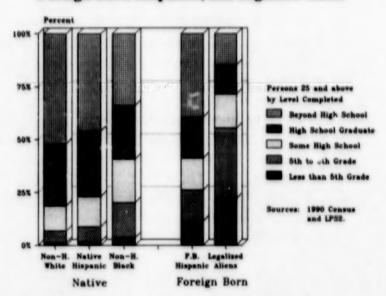


Figure 3.4 Educational Attainment of U.S. Natives, Foreign-Born Hispanics, and Legalized Aliens

Schooling in the United States. The enrollment of undocumented children in American schools is a current issue of controversy. It is easier to estimate the costs of such schooling than to assess the long-run social costs of not educating children resident in this country. Classroom immersion fosters mastery of English, the effects of which can be positive even if the student does not graduate.

The LPS file enables us to pinpoint legalized aliens who attended U.S. schools, many while still illegally resident. Appendix table 3E shows that 22 percent of all section 245A LPRs, and about 43 percent of those who arrived before the age of 18, have attended American schools at some time. While assessment of the effects of such schooling is beyond the scope of this report, the legalization surveys do provide unique empirical data on this issue.<sup>15</sup>

Education and vocational training since legalization. More than 12 percent of legalized adults reported earning credits toward a high school or higher degree during the 4 to 5 years after they applied for legalization. Over 6 percent attained diplomas or degrees. Two-thirds of these were at the high school or graduate equivalency degree (GED) level, but one-third were at a higher level. Table 3.2 above shows that between 1987/88 and 1992 the share with 13 or

<sup>15</sup> Table 3A shows that these youthful arrivals were, on average, 11 years younger than those who arrived as adults. In most two-dimensional tabulations, the effects of this age differential overwhelm those of early arrival and U.S. schooling. Hence assessment of the role of U.S. schooling will require multivariate analysis.

<sup>16</sup> Less than 4 percent of the adults in the LPS2 sample were of high school age (16 to 18) at the time they applied for legalization.

more years of education edged up from 12 to 15 percent. By the latter date, several members in the LPS sample had actually completed doctoral degrees.

With time, the educational investments of this maturing cohort will shift increasingly toward vocational training. In the years between application and 1992, 16 percent attended vocational, trade, or business school. Nearly all who did so spoke English.

The modal length of vocational training programs was between 3 and 6 months. Nearly half earned certificates, diplomas, or licenses, most frequently having to do with equipment repair, word processing, or other computer functions.

Legalized aliens themselves covered the expenses for nearly three-quarters (73 percent) of the vocational classes undertaken during this period. Employers subsidized just a small fraction of all training (about 2 percent of classes taken). The remaining 25 percent of classes were paid for by various Federal, State, and local government programs. Only about 5 percent of trainees were assisted through the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA).

Asked to evaluate the utility of education and/or training they had received since legalization, the new LPRs generally viewed the results as positive. In both cases, two-thirds (66 percent) felt their investment had led to more responsibilities on the job. About 61 percent of those who had pursued formal schooling and 63 percent who had obtained job training had since found new jobs using the skills they had learned. Just over half of those who had pursued education (54 percent) or training (53 percent) since legalization felt that it had resulted in an increase in earnings.

## Summary

The legalization surveys provide a detailed profile of the adult beneficiaries of INA's section 245A. More importantly, they provide a rare, longitudinal record of the experiences of these legalized aliens beginning prior to their arrival in the United States.

LPS2 shows that by 1992, most section 245A beneficiaries were in their early to mid-30s, having spent the better part of their adult lives in the United States. A disproportionate number were living in California, Texas, and New York. Fewer than one-quarter lived elsewhere in the United States.

Most legalized aliens still spoke primarily Spanish. Their educational attainment and English language skills varied considerably by region of origin and age at arrival, and were also strongly correlated with one another. The strength of this connection suggests that certain groups are doubly disadvantaged. Receiving only a grade school education in a non-English-speaking country is likely to afford the entrant little mobility in the U.S. labor market.

IRCA-mandated English language classes have not altered this situation. In 1992, nearly one-quarter of all legalized adults still reported that they spoke no English.

Most legalized adults left school for the last time before entering the United States. Because minimum educational requirements at home were often lower than those in the United States, pre-1982 LPRs had completed an average of just 7 years of schooling. This placed them at a decided handicap in the relatively well-educated labor force of the United States.

However, more than one-fifth have attended some school in this country. Indeed, more than 1 in 10 earned credits toward a high school or higher degree in the years following application for legalization. Moreover, 16 percent attended vocational, trade, or business school during the same period. Most who completed some post-legalization training or education in the United States believe that this investment has had positive job-related consequences, e.g., gaining them more responsibilities, a new position, or higher wages.

# CHAPTER 4. CHANGES IN LABOR MARKET BEHAVIOR AND JOB CHARACTERISTICS

It is widely believed that illegal migrants enter the United States primarily in search of work. The growing presence of illegal immigrants in the U.S. labor market stimulated a debate that eventually led to the immigration reform of 1986. Hence, in reviewing the outcomes of IRCA legislation, labor market consequences are particularly important.

#### **Labor Market Attachment**

A key policy question concerns whether legalization has affected labor force participation and/or wages, and if so, how. This chapter looks at changes in labor market behavior since the new LPRs first received work authorization.

At the time of their 1992 interview, virtually all respondents were still barred from applying for Federal needs-based assistance. Consequently, this volume does not explore the link between receipt of public assistance and labor force participation.<sup>17</sup> Nonetheless, it bears noting that the changes in labor market behavior discussed in this section predated eligibility for various forms of Federal assistance.

Virtually all adults who applied for legalization under the pre-1982 program (96 percent) had already held jobs in the United States. The first legalization survey provides a snapshot of their labor market involvement 1 week prior to application. Table 4.1 shows that at that time 85 percent were working or looking for work, compared with only about 77 percent of all U.S. adults in 1987. The labor force participation rates of both men and women were unusually high, that for men reaching a remarkable 96 percent. Because men

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> For further discussion of the increased use of public benefits following the waiting period, see FCS (1995).

Since most legalization applications were submitted between May 5, 1987, and May 4, 1988, unless otherwise specified, comparisons between legalized and U.S. populations "at time of application" use as a reference point 1987 U.S. annual averages. Most LPS respondents were between the ages of 18 and 64 in 1989 and 21 and 64 in 1992. For comparability, U.S. data are age-restricted to 18 to 64 in 1987 and 20 to 64 in 1992.

Table 4.1. Labor Force Status of the Population and Workforce by Usual Weekly Hours and Class of Work: Legalized Aliens and U.S. Population, 1987/88 and 1992

Characteristic	Legalized Popula Workforce (pe	U.S. Population and Workforce (percent)			
	At Application <sup>a</sup>	1992 <sup>b</sup>	1987 <sup>c</sup>	1992 <sup>d</sup>	
Labor Force Status					
Total					
LF participation rate	85	81	76	79	
Total	100	100	100	100	
Employed	81	75	71	74	
Unemployed	4	6	5	5	
Not in labor force	15	19	24	21	
Men		.,			
LF participation rate	96	94	85	88	
Total	100	100	100	100	
Employed	94	86	80	82	
Unemployed	2	8	5	6	
Not in labor force	4	6	15	12	
Women	•	0	13	12	
LF participation rate	70	66	66	70	
	100	100	100	100	
Employed	64	61	62	66	
The state of the s	6	5	4	4	
Not in labor force	30	34	34	30	
		-	-		
Women as percent of total employed	35	36	45	46	
Usual Hours of Work Per Week					
Total workforce	100	100	100	100	
Less than 35	11	15	26	27	
1 to 14	1	2	5	5	
15 to 29	6	7	12	12	
30 to 34	4	6	9	10	
35 to 40	66	61	46	44	
35 to 39	5	7	7	7	
40	61	54	39	37	
More than 40	23	24	28	29	
41 to 48	9	10	10	10	
49 to 59	8	9	10	11	
60 or more	6	5	8	8	
Men					
Total	100	100	100	100	
Less than 35	14	22	19	18	
35 to 40	60	53	44	44	
More than 40	26	25	37	38	
Women			٥,	-	
Total	100	100	100	100	
Less than 35	48	55	36	33	
35 to 40	43	37	46	47	
More than 40	9	8	18	20	
Class of work.	,	9	10	20	
	100	100	100	100	
Total Private wage and salary	100	100	100	100	
	95	88	76	75	
Government wage and salary	0	4	15	16	
Self-employment or unpaid family	4		9	9	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Base is persons ages 16 and above.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. data (Bureau of Labor Statistics, unpublished annual averages from the Current Population Survey, 1987 and 1992).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Base is persons ages 16 to 64.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Base is persons ages 21 and above.

d Base is persons ages 20 to 64.

Note: Some percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

outnumbered women in this population and nearly all men worked, 65 percent of those who held jobs (the "legalized workforce") were men. During the same year, just 54 percent of U.S. workers with jobs were men.

The effects of legalization are entangled with business and life-cycle effects. The two IRCA legalization programs were launched during a period of rapid economic growth. Nearly 3 million undocumented aliens, most of them young adults and teenagers, received work authorization between May 1987 and December 1988. Soon thereafter the economy stalled, dampening employment prospects for all Americans—including those newly legalized. Since that time, economic restructuring has altered job opportunities while the transition to midlife has altered this cohort's incentives to work.

It is important to recognize that when LPS2 was in the field, the economy was recovering from a recession. This recession had been particularly difficult for low-wage earners. The gains this cohort had achieved were undoubtedly constrained by prevailing economic conditions. There is no way of knowing what advantages legalization would have conferred in the context of a more expansive economy.

Labor force participation. Despite the intervening recession, the number of persons in the age-adjusted U.S. civilian labor force remained virtually constant between 1987 and 1992. Yet during the same period the number of economically active legalized adults declined by 4 percent. This change narrowed the gap between the total participation rates for the two groups as is evident in table 4.1. The overall U.S. rate edged up from 76 to 79 percent, while that of legalized aliens dropped from 85 to 81 percent, ending the period only slightly above the national rate.

The exceptionally high participation rates that pre-1982 applicants had registered as illegal aliens dropped off noticeably during the recessionary period following legalization. Appendix table 4A shows that only a few small segments of the legalized labor force continued to grow—notably its youngest, most English-proficient, and best-educated components. Between application and 1992, the participation rates of legalized men fell from 96 to 94 percent and those of women from 70 to 66 percent.

Table 4B shows that the groups most affected by this decline were persons who had not gone beyond elementary school and/or spoke no English. The share of Mexican and Central American men who were neither working nor looking for work doubled. Among older, minimally educated, and non-English-proficient

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> Because of the aging of the legalization cohort, and its concentration in prime working ages, U.S. data have been age-adjusted for comparability. In 1987, there were 116.7 million persons between the ages of 16 and 64 in the U.S. civilian labor force. In 1992, there were 116.7 million in the age range 20 to 64. During this period, the number of section 245A legalized workers dropped from 1,095,000 to 1,052,000.

men, economic inactivity more than trebled. The proportion of elementaryeducated women outside the labor force rose from 33 to 41 percent. Among women who spoke no English, the share inactive rose even more dramatically, from 33 to 47 percent.

Despite this general downward shift in participation, it is important to recognize that in 1992 prime-aged legalized men were still exceptionally active. Their participation rate of 94 percent exceeded that of both black and white men, whose comparable rates were 81 and 89 percent, respectively.

Employment and unemployment. Table 4.1 shows that in the thriving economy of the late 1980s, the unemployment rate of male legalization applicants was less than half that of U.S. men in general, i.e., 2 versus 5 percent. During the next 5 years, their unemployment rate climbed past the overall male rate to reverse this differential. By 1992, the comparable figures were 8 and 6 percent, respectively, for legalized and total men. Unemployment rates of legalized women had hardly changed.

Of the legalized aliens who left employment during the survey interval, by 1992 men were more likely to be looking for work, while women were more likely to have withdrawn from the labor market. Appendix table 4B shows that very few subgroups increased their footing in the workforce, the primary exceptions being youth of both sexes and women who were English proficient or lived in Texas.

Work schedules. With their workforce heavily dominated by wage earners and men, the majority of legalizing workers maintain 40-hour-per-week schedules. Table 4.1 shows that in the years following legalization, the share working at this threshold fell from 61 to 54 percent. More moved into part-time than into extended work schedules. Nonetheless, the share working 40 or more hours per week was still substantially higher for legalized than for total U.S. workers, i.e., 78 versus 66 percent.

Appendix table 4C identifies some of the correlates of hours worked. As might be expected, men tended to work more hours per week than women. Lengthy schedules were particularly common among LPRs from Other Countries, those living in New York, those who were proficient in English, the moderately well educated, and those in their 30s. Extended work schedules appeared to translate into higher family income.

## **Job Characteristics**

The list of industries and occupations through which the pre-1982 cohort first entered the U.S. labor market is relatively brief. Most entered by way of agriculture, construction, the apparel industry, restaurants, or private household jobs. These have long been recognized as common entry points for undocumented workers (ILAB, 1989). However, little is known about what happens to undocumented workers over time. Do they remain in the same occupations

and industries or do they filter into other sectors? If they remain in entry positions, is it their illegal status, per se, or simply lack of human capital that keeps them in these low-wage jobs?

Industry. Nearly 5 years after receiving work authorization, the dispersion of legalized aliens across industries remained quite different from that of other U.S. workers. They were noticeably underrepresented in several high-wage industries, including mining; transportation, communications and public utilities (TCPU); finance, insurance and real estate (FIRE); and public administration. So few held such jobs that these industries must be shown collectively in the final column of Appendix table 4D. In 1992, 19 percent of U.S. workers, but just 8 percent of the legalized, held any type of job in these high-wage industries. The legalization cohort was also significantly underrepresented in most services, the biggest exceptions being business and private household services.

Conversely, legalized aliens were six times as likely as other Americans to hold private household service jobs, twice as likely to work in restaurants, and nearly twice as likely to work in agriculture or nondurable manufacturing. Thus, despite work authorization, their employment profile still reflected the types of positions held prior to legalization.

Table 4D shows that their industrial placement differed noticeably from State to State. In Texas, construction jobs figured prominently, and in California, manufacturing. Legalized New Yorkers were more likely than others to work in wholesale or retail trade.

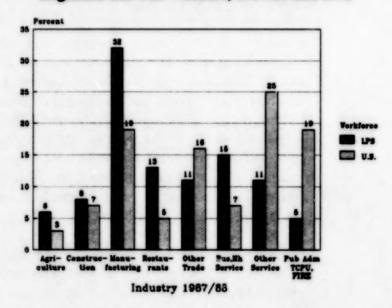
Men were far more likely than women to work in construction, agriculture, durable goods manufacturing, restaurants, or business services. Conversely, women found jobs primarily in service industries (particularly household services), and in nondurable manufacturing. The industrial profile of LPRs from Central America and Other Countries was more like that of U.S. workers than was the profile of the Mexican born.

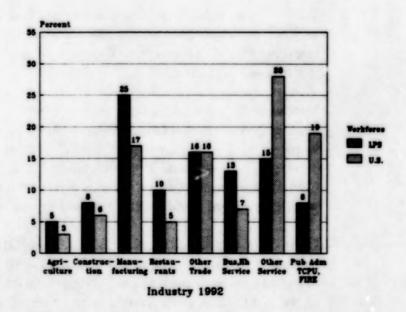
During the post-legalization period, a disproportionate share of the earliest arrivals, Mexicans, and those unable to speak English remained in agriculture or manufacturing. Younger LPRs, or those who knew some English, were more likely to find jobs in the construction or restaurant industries. Older LPRs, Central Americans, women, and especially those arriving since 1975, were particularly likely to work in private households.

Greater educational attainment and fluency in English appeared necessary to obtain jobs in high-wage industries such as trade (other than restaurants), services (other than private household), public administration; transportation, communications and public utilities; finance, insurance, and real estate; and mining.

Figure 4.1 shows that the cohort's industrial profile resembled that of U.S. workers more closely in 1992 than in 1987. At the beginning of this interval,

Figure 4.1 Industrial Distribution: Legalized and U.S. Workers, 1987/88 and 1992





despite the fact that U.S. workers had been leaving manufacturing for some time, legalization applicants were still heavily positioned in such jobs. The continued contraction of manufacturing employment spurred legalized workers into new industries, contributing to this apparent convergence.

Table 4.2 focuses on a few of the most pertinent industries. From the Census Bureau's list of 235 3-digit industry codes, it isolates the 15 industries where

Table 4.2. Representation of Legalized and U.S. Workers in the Fifteen Most Frequently-Cited Industries: Prior to U.S. Entry, at Arrival, in 1987/88, and in 1992

Most Frequently Reported Industries	Dist	U.S. Workers (percent)				
	Last Job Outside of U.S.	First Job in U.S.	At Application <sup>a</sup>	1992	1987	1992
Eating, drinking establishments	4	14	13	10	5	5
Private household services	5	14	8	6	1	1
Agriculture, crop and livestock	24	10	3	2	2	1
Apparel production	3	6	5	4	1	1
Construction	8	6	8	8	7	6
Landscaping, horticulture	_	3	3	2	_	1
Hotel and motel	1	3	3	4	1	1
Furniture	1	2	2	1	1	1
Miscellaneous plastics	_	2	2	1	_	_
Building services	_	2	2	2	1	1
Hospital and nursing home	2	2	2	3	5	6
Automobile repair	2	1	2	2	1	1
Grocery, retail	3	1	2	2	2	3
Real estate	_	1	2	1	2	2
Laundry	-	1	1	2	-	-
Percent in						
Top five industries	44	50	37	30	16	14
Top 15 industries	53	68	62	50	29	29

<sup>-</sup> Less than 0.5 percent.

Notes: For purposes of this table, crop agriculture and livestock agriculture were combined, as were hospitals and nursing care facilities. Some figures may not add to subtotal due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. days (Restau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January 1988 and January 1993. Annual averages).

cohort members have most frequently been employed in the United States. This table tracks the share of total employment associated with these low-wage industries from the period prior to U.S. entry through 1992.

Just 57 percent of the cohort held jobs prior to U.S. entry. Of those who did, this table shows that 24 percent worked in agriculture and 8 percent in construction. At U.S. entry, some found jobs in the corresponding U.S. industries. Restaurants, private households, and apparel manufacturers also hired a substantial share, the most popular entry points being restaurant and domestic service jobs. Fully two-thirds of the pre-1982 cohort who would eventually legalize found their first U.S. job in one of these 15 industries.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

Even before obtaining work authorization, the cohort's employment in private household service jobs had declined. Restaurant employment, which remained virtually unchanged until the late 1980s, dropped substantially following legalization. No similar withdrawal from the restaurant industry was registered by other U.S. workers during this period.

The top five industries, alone, accounted for 50 percent of all initial entries into the U.S. labor market. About 37 percent of the workforce were still in these industries when they applied for legalization, a figure that dropped to 30 percent by 1992.

At the latter date, half were still attached to the top 15 industries. Legalized workers have become increasingly dispersed within this list, yet movement into the other 218 industries, which account for 71 percent of all U.S. employment, has been slow. Five years after receiving work authorization, cohort members were still nearly twice as likely as other workers to hold jobs in this short list of low-wage industries.

Occupation. Industrial data capture only one dimension of worker segregation. Within sectors where natives and legalized aliens are similarly represented, e.g., construction, the two groups may fill quite different occupational niches. Appendix table 4E contrasts the overall occupational distributions of the two groups in 1992. It shows legalized workers to be underrepresented in professional, technical, managerial, sales, and administrative support positions, but overrepresented in services, farming, crafts, operative, and laborer occupations.

Gender differentiation by occupation is strong, except in professional, operative and laborer jobs, which men and women are equally likely to hold. In 1992, men were more heavily clustered in the craft and food service categories, while women were much more likely to hold private household, other (nonfood) service, or administrative support jobs.

The occupational profile of Mexican-origin LPRs contrasted sharply with that of the U.S. workforce. The occupational mix of LPRs from Other Countries more closely resembled that of U.S. workers. In the predominantly Hispanic groups, Mexicans favored craft and operative jobs, while Central Americans were dispersed more broadly into white collar, private household, and other service occupations.

Table 4.3 focuses on the 15 most frequently cited 3-digit occupations. There were 501 potential occupations from which to choose. Workers were more broadly dispersed across occupations than across industries. Yet here, too, legalized workers remain extraordinarily clustered.

Of those who worked prior to U.S. entry, 21 percent did so in farming occupations. Private household childcare and laborer jobs also each accounted for about 4 percent of jobs abroad. Upon arrival in the United States, however.

Table 4.3. Representation of Legalized and U.S. Workers in the Fifteen Most Frequently-Cited Occupations: Prior to U.S. Entry, at Arrival, in 1987/88, and in 1992

Most Frequently Reported Occupations	Distrib	ution of (perc	U.S. Workers (percent)			
	Last Job Outside of U.S.	First Job in U.S.	At <sup>a</sup> Applic.	1992	1987	1992
Farm worker	21	10	3	1	1	1
Private household cleaner, servant	1	9	6	4	_	_
Food preparation, miscellaneous	1	8	3	1	1	1
Janitor, cleaner	1	4	6	5	2	2
Cook	2	3	5	5	1	2
Private household childcare	4	4	2	1	_	_
Textile sewing machine operator	2	4	4	4	1	1
Laborer	4	4	3	4	2	2
Groundskeeper, gardener	_	4	3	3	1	1
Hand packer	1	3	3	4	_	_
Assembler	1	2	3	2	1	1
Maid, houseman	_	2	2	2	_	_
Waiter's assistant	_	2	2	1	_	_
Cashier	2	2	1	2	2	2
Machine operator, not elsewhere						
classified	1	1	1	4	_	_
Percent in						
Top five occupations	26	34	23	16	5	6
Top 15 occupations	40	61	46	43	13	13

<sup>-</sup> Less than 0.5 percent.

Note: Some figures may not add to subtotal due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. data (Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*, January 1988 and January 1993. Annual averages).

34 percent entered the U.S. labor market as farm workers, private household cleaners and servants, food preparation workers, janitors, or cooks—19 percent in various private household occupations alone. The top 15 detailed occupations in this list accounted for more than 60 percent of all initial jobs.

Four of the entry-point occupations—farm work, food preparation, and house-hold cleaning and childcare—functioned as stepping-stones to other activities. Collectively they accounted for 31 percent of first jobs, 14 percent of jobs at application and only 7 percent by 1992. As their importance diminished, other occupations assumed greater prominence. The categories of janitors, cooks, sewing machine operators, groundskeepers, hand packers, and miscellaneous machine operators collectively accounted for 19 percent of first jobs, 22 percent of those at application, and 25 percent in 1992.

Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji have examined the occupational paths followed by legalization applicants since arrival in the United States. Their initial study

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

(1992) concerned the occupational mobility of Hispanic men prior to legalization. During their years of illegal residence, this group experienced considerable occupational turnover but little purposeful, upward mobility. Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji use the term "occupational churning" to describe this pre-legalization experience. The illegal aliens who achieved the most upward mobility during this period were those regaining occupational rank sacrificed between the home country and their first U.S. job.

Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji (forthcoming) subsequently extended this analysis to examine how work authorization influenced the correlates of upward occupational mobility. They looked at the separate job paths followed by men and women from four geographic regions.

For each group, the 15 most frequently cited 3-digit occupations were identified. Changing representation in these occupations was employed as an index of occupational concentration. Looking first at the top 15 male occupations, they found that 67 percent of all those employed at entry held such jobs, as compared with 48 percent during their last week of illegal residence, and 42 percent 5 years later, in 1992. The occupational concentration of females was even more striking. The 15 occupations at the top of their list accounted for 81 percent of all first jobs, 72 percent of the jobs held by female legalization applicants, and 65 percent of those held by women in 1992. That is, 5 years after gaining work authorization, legalized women were nearly as concentrated occupationally as men had been at arrival, a decade or more before.

In looking at patterns for men, Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji found that all groups used food counter jobs as a primary entry point. However, homogeneous groups such as Mexican men had the fewest alternate job options. Farming occupations served as the entry point for 17 percent of Mexican men, just 2 percent of those from Central America and virtually none of the men from the

For men, the 15 top-ranking occupations were, in descending order: farm work, food counter occupations, groundskeeping and gardening, janitorial and cleaning occupations, construction labor, cooking (except short-order), compressing and compacting machine operators, twisting machine operators, laborer (except construction), supervisor (handlers, not elsewhere classified), assembler, hand packer, auto mechanic, stevedore, and sales worker.

These data suggest that two out of five female beneficiaries of the pre-1982 program had gained entry into the U.S. labor market through jobs as launderers, private household childcare workers, or textile machine operators. Only about one-quarter of all male IRCA beneficiaries had done so through the key male occupations of farm and food counter work.

For women, the 15 top-ranking occupations in descending order were: household cleaning, private household childcare, twisting machine or rator, hand packer, farm worker, household maid, food counter occupations, janitorial. I cleaning occupations, sales counter clerk, compressing and compacting machine operator, assembler, waitperson, cook (except short-order), production inspector, and nursing aid and/or orderly.

Eastern Hemisphere.<sup>23</sup> Central American men tended to gain their footing as janitors, while those from countries outside the Western Hemisphere often did so as cooks.

Initial occupational choices for women were more limited than those of men. Regardless of where they came from, a disproportionate share began their unauthorized worklives in the United States doing cleaning and childcare in private households, or operating twisting machines. Women from Central America appeared to have the fewest, and those from countries outside the Western Hemisphere the most viable occupational options.<sup>24</sup>

Group mobility paths appeared to be strongly influenced by the human capital members brought with them into the workplace. One path, often followed by minimally skilled Mexican men, began in agriculture or food counter jobs. By the late 1980s, most of these men had abandoned agriculture, and many had advanced from food counter to cooks' occupations. Following legalization, Mexican men moved progressively into janitorial and/or construction laborers' jobs. Central American men were more likely to begin their U.S. worklives as janitors or food counter workers. By application they had often shifted from food counter to more skilled occupations such as painting, carpentry, and auto mechanics. Their upward mobility path continued following legalization, as an increasing number found jobs in truck driving, auto body repair, and management.

Work authorization had a less pronounced effect on women. A limited share of the Mexican women who first established themselves in private household and textile operative jobs had moved into sales or short-order cooking by 1992. Modest improvements were also registered by women from other Western Hemisphere nations, particularly as hairdressers, janitors, and cleaners. Those from countries outside the Western Hemisphere were making modest inroads into white-collar occupations such as insurance adjusters, miscellaneous managers or administrators, and bookkeepers.<sup>23</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> In their analysis, the term Western Hemisphere is used to refer to the Americas, the Caribbean and other surrounding islands. The Eastern Hemisphere is taken to include Europe, Asia, Africa, Australia, Oceania and other surrounding islands.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> The top two ranking occupations for Central American women were laundry and childcare. These collectively accounted for 51 percent of all jobs held at entry and 28 percent in 1992. Among women from countries outside the Western Hemisphere, jobs as launderers, ironers, and sales counter clerks ranked highest, together accounting for 17 percent of all jobs at entry and 12 percent in 1992.

Borjas and Tienda (1993), in examining the LAPS files, concluded that "Asians stand apart from undocumented migrants from other origins and as a group—they do not fit the 'typical' image of this population as poorly educated labor flow working in low-status jobs. Over half of all undocumented Asian men and women held white collar jobs when they adjusted their lawful status."

Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji postulated a strong link between occupational mobility prior to and that following legalization. They compared the long-term occupational experiences of workers who were, and those who were not, upwardly mobile following legalization. The two groups entered the U.S. labor market in much the same occupations. However, by the time they applied for legalization, their paths had already diverged. During this illegal period, the strongest predictors of occupational advancement were U.S. labor market experience and English proficiency. The independent effects of U.S. schooling, vocational training, and even educational attainment were considerably smaller.

The authors then focused on the post-legalization labor market experiences of Mexican men. Their multivariate analysis showed that this group's occupational mobility following legalization was more closely linked to attainment of legal status than to specific human capital characteristics. Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji speculate that work authorization acted as a "union card" gaining Mexican men access to new parts of the labor market.

Class of work. Nearly all of the legalization cohort members began their U.S. worklives as wage-earners. Although only 3 out of 4 U.S. workers held such jobs in 1987, table 4.1 shows that during their last week as an illegal alien, 19 out of 20 of those working were in private sector wage or salary jobs. By comparison, these applicants had been virtually excluded from public sector employment, the source of 15 percent of all jobs nationwide. Moreover, their inability to command high wages slowed accumulation of resources necessary for self-employment. Only 4 percent of these soon-to-be legalized aliens had their own businesses, as compared with 9 percent of the overall workforce.<sup>26</sup>

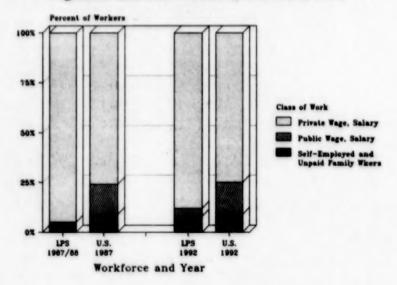
Class of work is one dimension in which legalization appears to have opened doors. Figure 4.2 shows that unlike U.S. workers, whose profile was virtually constant from 1987 to 1992, 8 percent of the legalized workforce shifted out of private wage and salary jobs during this period. Although some public sector jobs still remain out of their reach as noncitizens, half of those who moved from wage jobs found jobs in the public sector. The other half became self-employed, bringing the aggregate share in this category nearly in line with that of the U.S. workforce.

Appendix table 4F identifies certain attributes that may have increased the likelihood of their making these transitions. The groups that gained the firmest foothold in the public sector and created the most new jobs for themselves were

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> Because there are a negligible number of unpaid family workers in each case, they have been omitted from the base of these distributions.

Although the LPS2 sample provides empirical data on the scale and nature of self-employment, these data have not been analyzed. Given the state of the economy, much of it may have been relatively marginal. See Sirola (1992) for a case study of Mexican and Central American street vendors in Los Angeles.

Figure 4.2 Change in Class of Work: Legalized and U.S. Workers, 1987/88 to 1992



the English-proficient, high school graduates, those who were longtime residents of the United States, and/or were originally from countries outside of Mexico and Central America. Inability to speak English was an obvious handicap in this regard. Fully 94 percent of those unable to speak English remained in wage and salary jobs.

Size of establishment. Most legalized aliens work in relatively small business enterprises. As recently as 1992, solitary jobs of the type held prior to legalization, e.g., private household cleaning, gardening, and childcare, remained important sources of employment. About 10 percent of legalized workers said they had no co-workers at their place of employment. Although there is reason to believe that this is a disproportionately large share, there are no reliable counts of the number of U.S. workers who are similarly situated.

Most national data on the size of the workplace disregard solo workers, focusing instead on those in an establishment setting. Figure 4.3 follows this convention, comparing the distribution of legalized and other U.S. workers across businesses of varying size. Setting aside the role of solo workers, it remains clear that legalized workers are unusually likely to work in smaller enterprises. About 26 percent of legalized workers, as compared with just 16 percent of U.S. workers, are in establishments with less than 10 employees. By contrast, 26 percent of legalized workers, as compared with 44 percent of U.S. workers, are in establishments employing 100 or more.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Table 4E shows that about 5 percent of legalized workers, as compared with only about 1 percent of all U.S. workers, report holding private household jobs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> U.S. data are drawn from Wiatrowski (1994).

Percent in Size Class

Vorkforce

Legalized Employees

U.S. Employees

working alone

Figure 4.3 Size of Establishment: Legalized and U.S. Workers, 1992

Number of Workers in Establishment

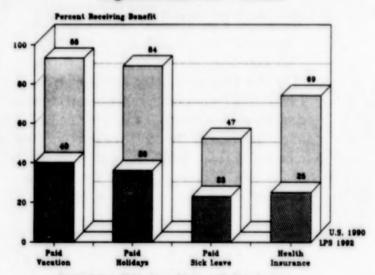
This differential distribution strongly affects conditions of employment. Larger firms tend to comply better with wage, hour, and safety regulations. The incidence of labor violations grows as establishment size drops. Small businesses, operating on tight budgets, often take greater risks to hold down costs. It is particularly difficult to enforce labor standards or tax regulations in private households. Hence, the cohort's continuing concentration in small firms and private household jobs may give members fewer worker protections and benefits than are enjoyed by the average U.S. worker.

Employment benefits. Legalized workers do, however, enjoy certain benefits shared by other workers. Table 4G illustrates that of those working for a wage or salary in 1992, 70 percent received paid vacations, 65 percent paid holidays, and 45 percent paid sick leave. About half (49 percent) had personal health insurance either completely or partially paid for by their employers.

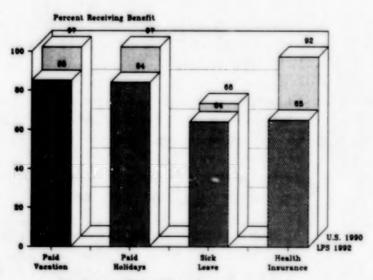
Figure 4.4 confirms that receipt of these benefits was strongly associated with establishment size. The one-quarter of all legalized workers who held jobs in establishments with 100 or more employees were nearly as likely as comparably situated U.S. workers to receive these benefits. Most received paid vacations and holidays and had access to sick leave and health insurance. However, the three-quarters of legalized workers employed in smaller establishments fared relatively poorly. The likelihood of their receiving any of these benefits was less than half that of comparably placed U.S. workers.

Hence, irrespective of wage considerations, employment in small businesses resulted in greater financial vulnerability. On balance, legalized workers were

Figure 4.4 Employee Benefits by Size of Establishment: Legalized and U.S. Workers



Businesses With Less Than 100 Employees



Businesses With 100 or More Employees

less likely than average to be compensated for holidays, vacations, or periods of illness.

Health insurance is arguably the most important employment benefit. Very few undocumented workers are likely to receive this benefit when they first arrive in this country. However, as young adults in good health they may get by for a time without requiring much medical care. This appeared to be the case for many cohort members at the time of the 1989 survey. However, as their families

have grown and they themselves have moved into midlife, their need for insurance has increased.

Nationally, most full-time workers have health insurance through their jobs. Again, availability of such coverage increases with establishment size. About 69 percent of full-time workers in small businesses (1990), and about 92 percent of those in firms with 100 or more employees (1989) have such coverage (EBRI, 1995). Although most legalized workers maintain full-time schedules, their concentration in blue collar jobs in smaller establishments limits access to this important benefit. In 1992, only about half of all legalized wage-earners reported receiving health insurance through work, a figure that had not changed appreciably since legalization. The implications of this level of coverage for legalization families are discussed further in Chapter 6.

Another benefit whose implications will become increasingly important is pensions. Relatively few legalized aliens appeared to have had private pension coverage in 1992. Data on this benefit, shown in Appendix table 4G, are obtained indirectly through questions about payroll deductions; they are therefore incomplete. Nonetheless, these data suggest that the retirement strategies of most legalized workers revolved around the Social Security program, into which 90 percent of all wage-earners paid through payroll deduction. Only 26 percent of legalized workers, as compared with 42 percent of comparable U.S. workers (EBRI, 1992), indicated that they were participating in other pension plans through work.

Unionization. According to conventional wisdom, undocumented workers, who fear deportation, avoid unionization. Nationally representative statistics on this issue are lacking, but a recent case study of workers in California argues against this notion. Delgado (1993) finds unionization rates of undocumented workers to be influenced by the same factors that affect other groups, a view supported by legalization survey data.

According to union organizers recently interviewed by Baker (forthcoming), union membership has not increased substantially in the wake of legalization. Yet, by 1992, membership rates were about the same for legalized as for other U.S. wage and salary workers, i.e., 15 and 16 percent, respectively.<sup>32</sup> The pre-1982 cohort's employment in heavily unionized occupations, e.g., machine

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> The Employee Benefit Research Institute (1995) has found that the likelihood of having health insurance is three times as great in firms with 1,000 or more employees as in firms with less than 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> In 1989, 46 percent of legalizing respondents reported having obtained health insurance "through a place of work." In 1992, about 37 percent had health insurance through their own jobs and another 10 percent through the jobs of family members.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> Data for the U.S. workforce are drawn from BLS (1993b).

operatives and laborers, and in unionized industries, e.g., manufacturing and construction, appears to have encouraged their union participation.

Table 4G shows considerable regional variability in this regard. About 30 percent of the wage and salary workers in New York, but just 2 percent of those in Texas, said they were union members. Union membership was higher for men than for women and higher for LPRs from Other Countries than for those from Mexico and Central America. Union membership appeared to increase with educational attainment and age, and to be positively associated with both family income and the receipt of various employment benefits.

Hourly wages and annual earnings. The LPS1 survey collected information on applicants' wage rates during their first year in the United States and again during their final week of illegal residence. Appendix table 4H shows that, in constant 1992 dollars, their mean hourly wages were no higher in 1987/88 than they had been soon after arrival, i.e., \$7.57 versus \$7.59. By contrast, over the 4 to 5 years following legalization, mean hourly earnings rose to \$8.71, an increase of 15 percent.<sup>33</sup>

This gain notwithstanding, legalized workers still earned substantially less than other U.S. workers. The Bureau of Labor Statistics publishes hourly wage data for all U.S. production and nonsupervisory workers in private, nonfarm establishments (BLS, 1993a). For this group as a whole, BLS estimates that in 1992 the average hourly wage was \$10.33. For similarly situated legalized workers, the figure was \$8.78.

Tienda and Singer (1995) looked at cross-sectional wage gains prior to legalization. They compared gains registered by legalized men with those of all foreign-born men. Controlling for country of origin, age, education, and marital status, they found that men in the pre-1982 cohort received a greater wage benefit from U.S. experience than did the total foreign born (3.2 versus 1.4 percent, annually).

Within this cohort, however, the effects of work experience differed from one origin group to the next. During the period prior to legalization, non-Mexicans achieved large nominal wage gains with U.S. experience. Mexican men did not.

In real terms, wage changes for all origin groups were negative prior to legalization. However, Mexican men who moved out of agriculture during this period experienced 15 percent less wage loss than did those remaining in agricultural jobs. The wage change of applicants from countries other than

The median hourly wage for all workers, computed as a ratio of weekly wages to hours worked, was \$7.50. Men earned somewhat more than women (\$8.43 versus \$6.29, respectively).

Mexico was not as heavily influenced by such withdrawals because fewer had begun their U.S. worklives in agricultural positions.

Subsequently, Singer (forthcoming) examined LPS2 data to assess the impact of legalization on wage growth. She found that, in constant 1992 dollars, the wages of Mexican men were the lowest, and those of male LPRs from non-Latin American countries the highest, both at application and 5 years thereafter. Controlling for human capital characteristics, Singer found that the wages of legalized men increased at about the same pace before and after legalization. Wage growth was most influenced by education, English proficiency, sector of employment, and recency of arrival in the United States.

Table 4H shows that across the period of observation, nearly all subpopulations experienced some real wage growth. However, real losses were sustained by those in the United States longest and those completely unable to speak English. Respondents in families whose 1991 total incomes fell below \$12,000 were trapped on the wrong side of the widening wage gap. They had experienced more than a 10 percent drop in average real hourly earnings since they arrived in this country over a decade earlier. By contrast, respondents in families with incomes of \$30,000 or more had themselves experienced average hourly wage growth of about 40 percent.

Median annual earnings of legalized workers in 1991, also shown in table 4H, stood at about \$12,670, compared with \$17,146 for the U.S. workforce as a whole. Median earnings of legalized families were little more than half the figure for U.S. families in general, i.e., \$20,147 as compared with \$35,939.34

On an annual basis, legalized New Yorkers had an average of 34 percent more in individual earnings than legalized Texans; LPRs from Other Countries typically earned 48 percent more than those from Mexico; and men earned about 74 percent more than women. Large earnings differentials were also associated with language skills and education. The high school educated earned 54 percent more than those who had not gone beyond elementary school, while the English proficient had a remarkable 76 percent earnings advantage over those who spoke no English.

Effect of investment in human capital on wages. The most recent study by Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark (forthcoming) lends context to the issue of wage gains. In this study the authors looked at determinants of pre-1982 male wages, before and after legalization. At issue was the question of whether, and how, the determinants of male wages changed over the period since this cohort first arrived in the United States.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> U.S. data are unpublished statistics from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark found that the structure of wage determination changed significantly between initial U.S. entry and application. During their initial year in the United States, the pre-1982 cohort received wage rates seemingly unrelated to traditional human capital, demographic, and employment variables. They appeared to have found their first U.S. job based on whom, rather than what, they knew. Although initial job placement was somewhat random, over time the wage paths of skilled and unskilled workers diverged. Those with educational credentials and especially English skills appeared to distinguish themselves from others not comparably equipped.<sup>35</sup>

The group with the most human capital prior to legalization was nonimmigrant overstayers, i.e., aliens who become illegal residents after first being lawfully admitted on nonimmigrant (temporary) visas. Many of these were Asian or European students who violated the terms of their admission. Their contacts, English language skills, and "papers" probably increased the efficiency of their early job searches. Thus, nonimmigrant overstayers had a clear wage advantage over other applicants during the pre-legalization period. Men from Mexico, Central American, and other Western Hemisphere countries typically entered without inspection, often bringing less human capital and little or no English facility. Their investments in such skills were also initially limited.

For many, legalization appears to have been a turning point. Suddenly, there was a surge of investment in language skills, education, and training. Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark find that about 43 percent of Mexican men, 53 percent of those from Central America, 48 percent of those from other Western Hemisphere countries, and 44 percent of those from countries outside the Western Hemisphere undertook some type of skill enhancement training. This represented more than a doubling of the previous rate of human capital accumulation for most origin groups.

Of course, it would be difficult to attain this education or training without some facility in English. Thus, it is not surprising that the only variable in the Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark model consistently linked to higher wages, for all origin groups, was English ability.

Through investment in human capital, certain groups have improved their wages relative to those of others in the post-legalization period. Nearly all of the wage gains registered by Mexican and Central American men following legalization have occurred in the context of such investments. LPRs from countries outside the Western Hemisphere possessed more education, training, and English facility

Recalling Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji (1992), those who had suffered the greatest occupational setbacks at entry regained some of their former status. Others simply "churned."

<sup>36</sup> The lower acquisition rates of men from the Eastern Hemisphere are consistent with their already higher levels of educational attainment.

at application and have not continued to invest as heavily in these areas. As a result, although their wages remain high, the magnitude of their wage advantage over other groups of legalized men has diminished.

These preliminary findings help explain why such a large share of the IRCA-legalized population were caught in a pattern of "occupational churning" prior to legalization. The need to avoid detection may have prevented illegal aliens who were capable of seeking training from doing so. Without adequate credentials, they could not rise out of entry level "immigrant" jobs. Thus, one of IRCA's most important legacies may have been the freedom to pursue these credentials.

"Off the books" employment. One purpose of the IRCA legalization program was to reduce the number of illegal aliens in the underground economy. Advocates reasoned that by granting these aliens work authorization, the government could more effectively protect wages and working conditions and better integrate these workers into the tax system. The implicit assumption was that many, if not most, worked "off the books."

Neither undocumented migration nor underground employment lends itself to statistical analysis. Hence, the validity of this initial assumption has never been rigorously tested. However, various case studies have cast some doubt on its accuracy. For instance, in their study of migrants circulating between 21 Mexican communities and the United States, Donato and Massey (1995) found that most unauthorized aliens pay taxes, suggesting that they hold jobs in the formal economy.

Fully 66 percent of the undocumented workers in their sample paid taxes through payroll deduction.<sup>37</sup> An even larger share of legalized aliens in their sample (87 percent of SAWs and 97 percent of pre-1982 workers) reported such tax-related deductions. While this differential is consistent with the notion that legalization may have increased tax receipts, it also suggests that the magnitude of this increase may have been relatively small.

The LPS2 study includes two indicators of possible underground employment: absence of payroll withholdings for various taxes and the practice of being paid in cash. Neither was addressed in the first survey. Hence, there are no baseline data against which to compare the estimates for wage earners in Appendix table 4I. Nor are there comparable estimates for the U.S. workforce as a whole, against which to judge these figures.

In 1992, 90 percent of legalized wage workers said their employers withheld Social Security and other Federal, State, and local taxes from their pay. About

<sup>37</sup> This pattern helps explain the flood of requests to straighten out Social Security accounts following legalization.

88 percent of the wage earners were paid entirely by check. Just 7 percent said they received only cash; 5 percent received a combination of the two, while a handful also received room and board.

Table 4.4 identifies some of the situations in which "off the books" employment was most likely to occur. In evaluating these data, it is important to recognize that payroll practices are measures of employer behavior, over which the employee may have little or no control. Similarly employed U.S. natives might well respond to these questions in much the same way as these new LPRs have done.

It is immediately evident from this table that informal employment seldom occurs in large firms. Almost none of those working in businesses with more than 100 employees received payment in cash; nearly all reported that their employers withheld taxes from their pay. Conversely, 42 percent of those working alone received payment entirely in cash and another 24 percent at least partially in cash. Only one-third of these solo workers reported that their employers withheld taxes from their pay.

A disproportionate share of the solitary workers held jobs in private households. The recent spate of charges against public figures is a reminder that many private householders participate in the underground economy. Unless the employer notifies government programs that they have employed someone to clean, cook, garden, or take care of their children in the home, both parties' tax obligations usually escape official notice.

The second legalization survey casts a spotlight on this largely unregulated industry. Of the legalized private household service workers surveyed in 1992, 43 percent were paid entirely, and another 17 percent at least partially, in cash. Absence of a paper trail reduced the likelihood that either the legalized aliens or their employers would pay obligatory taxes. Slightly more than one-third of the household service workers (37 percent) paid Social Security taxes through withholding and just one-third used this approach to pay Federal, State, or local taxes.<sup>38</sup>

More than one-quarter of the workers in farming and sales occupations had no payroll deductions for taxes. By contrast, despite the fact that many restaurant and food service workers received cash tips, their wages were generally paid by check and Social Security and other taxes were generally deducted. As a result, in 1992 legalized food service workers (predominantly men) had less

These data are not, however, definitive evidence of tax evasion. Employers could be paying both halves of the Social Security tax directly, while legalized workers could be paying their Federal, State, and local taxes themselves from wages received. Yet, making such arrangements could be particularly difficult for the groups in question, given their limited education and language skills.

Table 4.4. Method of Payment and Absence of Various Payroll Deductions by Industry, Occupation, and Size of Establishment, 1992

Industry, Occupation, and Firm Size	Percent of Workers Paid		Percent of Workers Reporting No Payroll Deductions for				
		Partially in Cash	Federal, State Income Tax	Social Security	Other Pension		
Legalized Workers	9	7	14	15	75	53	
Industry							
Agriculture	8	8	28	24	81	69	
Construction	7	11	19	22	79	56	
Manufacturing							
Durable	1	3	4	5	68	34	
Non-durable	2	2	5	5	72	49	
Trade							
Restaurant	13	13	7	8	84	68	
Other wholesale, retail	8	5	12	13	75	49	
Services				-			
Business	9	10	14	14	74	55	
Private household	43	17	66	63	95	92	
Other services	5	4	9	10	70	45	
Other <sup>a</sup>	9	7	15	18	71	48	
Occupation							
Professional, technical and							
managerial	7	7	12	14	68	44	
Sales	13	11	28	30	83	61	
Administrative support	3	1	4	6	69	44	
Services							
Private household	43	17	66	62	96	93	
Food	12	11	4	5	81	60	
Other	5	4	11	10	74	49	
Farm	11	9	30	29	84	68	
Crafts and repairs	9	11	16	18	74	55	
Machine operator	4	4	7	7	70	45	
Laborer	3	4	8	9	77	46	
Firm Size (number of employees)							
1	42	24	63	64	93	91	
2-4	21	15	37	39	90	79	
5-9	10	5	12	13	79	64	
10-49	3	5	3	4	75	49	
50-99	1	3	3	3	73	37	
100-499	2	1	2	2	62	33	
500 or more	1	2	5	5	57	30	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Includes mining; transportation, communication and public utilities; finance, insurance and real estate; and public administration.

Note: Base is all legalized workers in the given industry, occupation, or size class.

Source: Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2).

opportunity than those in private household services (predominantly women) to be employed "off the books."

Appendix table 4I shows informal employment situations to be particularly common in New York, involving proportionately more workers from Central America and Other Countries than from Mexico. Members of low-income families, older workers, the poorly educated, and those with no English facility are most often found in these marginal circumstances.

## Beneficiaries' Evaluation of the Labor Market Impact of Legalization

LPS2 respondents were asked to evaluate the employment benefits they received from the legalization program. Although their responses are subjective, and must be interpreted with caution, they are perhaps our best measure of "customer satisfaction." Group-specific data are shown in Appendix table 4J.

Those who had looked for jobs since application were asked how legal status had affected their ability to get work. More than three-quarters said it had eased their job search process. Responses ranged from a feeling that legalization had made it much easier (53 percent) or somewhat easier to get work (25 percent) to a sense, in a handful of cases, that it had made it somewhat (2 percent) or even much harder (1 percent) to do so. The infrequency of these latter responses suggests little perceived increase in workplace discrimination. About one-infive (19 percent) said they thought legal status had had no effect on their ability to find work.

While most agreed that work authorization had eased the job search process, some were more positive than others. It was persons with 7 to 11 years of education and a modest level of English proficiency who seemed most satisfied with the results. This intermediate group may have been ideally suited to benefit from post-legalization education and training. By contrast, the LPRs who spoke no English whatsoever, or had minimal education, may have missed out on training opportunities. They seemed most disappointed in the program's impacts. Conversely, those who had the most skills in hand when they applied for legal status seemed somewhat indifferent to the law's labor market effects.

A second LPS2 question, addressed only to those who had worked since legalization, concerned the effect of legal status on their ability to advance at work. Responses to this question were also positive, but somewhat more guarded. Fully 63 percent of those with work experience felt legal status had made it easier to advance at work. However, just 38 percent gave the program highest marks ("much easier"); another 25 percent felt it had been "somewhat" beneficial. More than one-third (36 percent) said legal status had not affected their ability to advance on the job. Almost none of the respondents (1 percent) felt it had made advancement more difficult. Once again, labor market benefits were felt most strongly by those who had attended secondary school and knew some English.

#### Summary

Researchers agree that a primary motivation behind illegal migration to the United States is the desire to work and improve economic well-being (Chiswick, 1988; DOL, 1989; DOL, 1991). The architects of immigration reform believed that legal status would foster this group's economic assimilation. The two legalization surveys provide the only nationally representative data with which to evaluate this assumption. Chapter 4 has used these data to compare the labor market experiences of section 245A beneficiaries before and after legalization.

The aliens who sought legalization in 1987 and 1988 were, at that time, strongly attached to the labor force. Participation rates of legalizing men exceeded those of all men, a pattern that remained intact in 1992. The rates of legalized women exceeded those of other women only in 1987/88, dipping below the U.S. rates by 1992. The activity rates of both men and women dropped somewhat following legalization, due in part to the subsequent recession. Even though the economy was recovering by 1992, legalized men faced a substantially elevated risk of unemployment. Many women appeared to have responded to this weakening demand by withdrawing from the labor market. The next chapter will illustrate that another factor contributing to their withdrawal may have been an increase in parental responsibilities.

Over the span of this cohort's worklife in the United States, its job options appear to have been relatively limited. At the outset, most found jobs as illegal workers in construction, restaurants, private households, agriculture, and manufacturing. Despite high rates of job turnover, few achieved real headway prior to legalization. As recently as 1992, the majority were still in the same short list of occupations and/or industries. Nonetheless, legalization appears to have spurred investments in education, language, and training that have enabled many section 245A beneficiaries to find jobs elsewhere. Evidence of this is seen in the growth of public service and self employment.

Legalized women are far more concentrated than men, both industrially and occupationally. About 65 percent of working women, but just 42 percent of working men, were in their respective top-listed 15 occupations at the time of the follow-up survey.

While such jobs were among the poorest paying in the United States, the picture was not uniformly bleak. After years of wage stagnation, most section 245A beneficiaries had finally experienced real wage growth. Unfortunately, this growth was not shared by those longest resident in the United States or those least able to communicate in English.

While legalized workers were somewhat less likely than average to receive employee benefits, one key reason appeared to be the size of employing firms. Pre-1982 legalized workers were only about half as likely as other Americans to work in establishments with 100 or more employees. About 10 percent of

legalized workers worked alone, e.g., in private households. The likelihood of their receiving health insurance, paid vacations, sick leave, or credits toward Social Security retirement was particularly limited in solitary jobs. One of the best measures of this cohort's movement into the formal economy may be their movement out of the private household service sector.

# CHAPTER 5. FAMILY STRUCTURE AND GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

The years between application for temporary residence and the 1992 interview were a busy period for the section 245A cohort, not only in an economic sense but also socially and demographically.

#### **Legalization and Family Structure**

In the late 1980s, "legalization households" included a mixture of never-married applicants, nuclear family members, more distant relatives, and totally unrelated individuals. By offering the hope of greater prosperity, legalization may have helped alter some of these living arrangements. During the years immediately following legalization, many cohort members entered first marriages and/or became parents. Numerous others travelled to their homelands to visit relatives and some finally brought their families to live in the United States.

In their discussions with legalizing aliens, Hagan and Baker (1993) discovered an unanticipated but widely held reaction to legalization. Most of the applicants with whom they spoke saw this program as a way of strengthening their bonds with the home country. IRCA made this possible in several ways: by increasing freedom of travel, promoting higher wages with which to support relatives abroad, and eventually enabling the new LPRs to petition for the immigration of these relatives.

This chapter examines survey data on these phenomena. In particular, it focuses on international travel, information on family members living abroad and their intentions to immigrate, and changes in the structure of legalization families and households in the wake of legalization. Much of the analysis that follows is patterned after unpublished work of Woodrow-Lafield.<sup>39</sup>

International mobility. The flow of illegal aliens across the southern border is known to be two-directional (Passel, 1986; Massey et al., 1987). However,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> The survey data reported in this chapter are based on responses of persons who participated in both legalization surveys. Woodrow-Lafield's analysis of changing family structure utilized the full LPS1 and LPS2 samples.

because U.S. border security jeopardizes reentry, illegal aliens are often reluctant to make temporary visits to their home country.

Freedom of movement was probably one of the strongest incentives to legalize. A study of legalized Guatemalans in Houston, Texas found that many were maintaining families abroad, to which they returned for up to 6 months each year (Hagan and Baker, 1993). The authors concluded that "one of the most interesting and unexpected effects of IRCA may be the creation of a cohort of 'permanent' legal residents who are, paradoxically, more geographically mobile than their undocumented counterparts." The LPS1 files indicate that even between 1982 and 1986, when they were "continuously resident," 44 percent of section 245A applicants actually left the United States temporarily, primarily for family reasons.

To assess the cohort's international mobility since legalization, the LPS2 asked respondents: "Since January 1991, including short trips, how many times have you left the United States?" Nearly two-thirds (64 percent) said they had left the United States at least once during the reference period of 16 to 20 months. Nearly half who did so travelled only once. However, 10 percent left the country five times or more, and 2 percent did so at least 25 times.

Only 1 percent of those interviewed in 1992 had left the country to live or work elsewhere during this reference period. Some (primarily along the border) cited shopping as a motivation (17 percent); others cited vacations (58 percent). However, fully 80 percent of all travelers said they had left the country at least once for family reasons.

Relatives abroad and their intentions to immigrate. Binational families are inherently unstable. In the long run, such families are likely to reunify on one side of the border or the other. Where they do so is of considerable policy interest.

The Hagan and Baker study (1993) found that among Guatemalans in Houston, the ability to petition for the entry of relatives ranked a close second behind freedom of trave; as their motive for legalization.

The LPS2 survey queried respondents about various types of relatives for whom they might eventually petition, and the migratory intentions of those relatives abroad. Unfortunately, this information has quickly become outdated. For instance, many offspring who were unmarried minors living abroad in 1992 have since married, become adults, and/or entered in United States. These

<sup>40</sup> In addition, at least 1 percent of the 5,000 persons in the second sample were lost to reinterview because they had left the United States for an extended period of time. Since reasons for failure to locate a respondent are not always evident, the true share of respondents residing elsewhere by the date of interview may well have been higher.

developments have altered the likelihood of their immigration in coming years. Hence, these data must be interpreted with caution.

Respondents were asked to enumerate their spouses, unmarried children, married sons and daughters, parents, and siblings living outside the United States. At the time of the 1992 survey, they estimated that about 30 percent of these relatives intended to immigrate (Woodrow-Lafield, 1994). Of the would-be immigrants, just 17 percent could be petitioned for immediately as spouses or unmarried offspring of LPRs. Fifty-seven percent were brothers or sisters of legalized aliens, ineligible unless the LPR first naturalized.

Few respondents had taken steps to assist the enumerated relatives in coming to this country. Of those listing immigration-hopeful relatives, just 20 percent had requested application information from the Federal Government and only 17 percent had filed petitions.

The situation is far from static, however. The Immigration Act of 1990 (IM-MACT90) created about 55,000 special visas per year for 3 years to accommodate spouses and unmarried offspring of IRCA's new LPRs. 42 An unknown share of the relatives mentioned in LPS2 received these special visas, which were also available to relatives of SAWs and to legalization relatives already living in the United States.

Administrative records of the Department of State show that between 1987 and 1994 the waiting list for family preference visas doubled, largely due to IRCA. By FY94, the visa waiting list for spouses and unmarried children of LPRs exceeded that of citizens' siblings. It is estimated that at the beginning of FY95 there were 1.1 million outstanding petitions for spouses and unmarried children of LPRs, of which 80 percent were for relatives of IRCA beneficiaries (State, 1995). Backlogs were greatest for Mexican nationals.

Naturalization and family sponsorship. An important unanswered question is what share of the legalized population will become U.S. citizens. Historically, Mexican nationals have been more hesitant than other aliens to take this final step (Portes and Rumbaut, 1990). Since Mexicans so outnumber other nationalities in the legalization cohort, a reluctance on their part would substantially dampen the cohort's overall naturalization rate. However, legislative efforts to exclude noncitizens from eligibility for various social services could in fact encourage applications for naturalization.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> See also Woodrow-Lafield (forthcoming).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup> The full 55,000 were available in FY92 and FY93, but just 32,776 were available in FY94. The 39,000 married sons and daughters of section 245A beneficiaries who wished to immigrate were ineligible for these visas.

The 1992 survey asked respondents about their plans to naturalize and/or retire in this country. Appendix table 5A summarizes findings on these two issues. The first question was, "In a few years you will be eligible to apply for naturalization to become a United States citizen. Do you think you will apply or not?" Nearly half (48 percent) said they would definitely do so, while another quarter (27 percent) said they would probably apply. Fewer than one-quarter (23 percent) indicated indecision, and only 2 percent said they would not. These figures may, of course, overstate actual intentions—particularly in light of the historically low rates of naturalization for Mexicans and respondents' possible desires to answer to this important question "correctly."

However, table 5A suggests that the groups who said they were most inclined to naturalize were those with the most favorable U.S. work experience. Close to two-thirds of the highly English-proficient, the high school educated, and LPRs from Other Countries were already considering this important step. Conversely, those with little education, those unable to speak English, and especially Mexican-origin LPRs were markedly less certain that they would seek U.S. citizenship.

A second question probed whether respondents intended to return to their home country, go elsewhere, or remain in the United States at retirement. While the English-proficient and those unable to speak English differed greatly in their intentions to naturalize (65 versus 30 percent, respectively), 4 out of 5 respondents in both groups intended to retire in the United States. The groups showing the least intention to retire in the United States were men (who were more likely than women to maintain families abroad) and newer arrivals, especially those from Central America. Period of arrival data suggest that intentions to emigrate may diminish with time.

As part of their phase II application, fully one-quarter of this legalization cohort satisfied the more stringent English and civics requirements established for naturalization, rather than the minimal standards established for legalization applicants. These fully certified LPRs should face few impediments in obtaining U.S. citizenship once they apply.

The window of eligibility for naturalization opened in November, 1993. By the following June, 7.7 percent of those eligible to apply for citizenship had already done so.<sup>43</sup> Of these, 6,001 had already received U.S. citizenship. These preliminary figures suggest that eventual rates of naturalization may be relatively high.

Appendix table 5B displays naturalization applications for this 6 month period by country of birth. Mexicans registered the lowest application rate—just 2.8 percent. By comparison, 16.9 percent of the remaining LPRs who had become eligible had applied.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>43</sup> The base of this figure is LPRs who achieved eligibility by May 1, 1994.

Naturalization may be the swiftest route to family reunification. Yet, even having taken this step, naturalized section 245A beneficiaries will have to enter the lengthy queue to bring in adult sons and daughters and/or siblings. Depending on how rapidly the cohort naturalizes, the backlogs for first, third, and fourth family-based preference visas could lengthen considerably. It is still relatively early to judge since, as mentioned earlier, the first wave of legalized aliens became eligible to apply in November 1993.

Changes in household size and family structure. Despite geographic separation from many of their close relatives, by 1992 most LPRs appeared to have settled or established families within the United States. Their living arrangements have changed tremendously in the years since they first entered this country. Although a disproportionate share arrived as young, solitary workers, by the time they were given an opportunity to legalize in the late 1980s, they had reached a median age of 32 years. By 1992, fewer than one-quarter were still in their 20s, half had passed the age of 36, and one-third were over the age of 40.

Life-cycle effects were therefore strongly in evidence. Table 5.1 shows that, at the time of application for legalization, 31 percent had not yet married. Over the ensuing period, the never-married component fell to 18 percent. Although the share residing with partners remained nearly constant, the share living with a spouse rose from 46 to 58 percent, inflating the proportion in couple relationships from 57 to 68 percent. Spouses arriving from abroad appear to have contributed little to this increase.

The composition of LPR households reconfigured noticeably following legalization. The probabilities of living alone or in unusually large households diminished substantially as living units moved toward a more nuclear model (Woodrow-Lafield, forthcoming).

The number of spouse/partners and children (hereafter referred to as "nuclear family" members) increased, while that of other members of the extended household (whom we shall call "adjunct" members) had declined. "During the post-legalization period, the proportion of legalized aliens living with their own children increased from half to two-thirds, "while the share living with siblings dropped from 40 to 33 percent."

<sup>44</sup> Adjunct members include the reference couple's siblings, parents, grandparents and grandchildren, more distant relatives, and all unrelated individuals in the household.

<sup>45</sup> These "own children" include not only children by birth but stepchildren, foster or adopted children, children for whom the respondent has assumed principle responsibility, and sonsand daughters-in-law.

<sup>46</sup> Siblings are defined as brothers and sisters, both natural and adopted, brothers- and sisters-in-law, stepbrothers and stepsisters.

Table 5.1. Changes in Marital Status and Family Size Between Date of Application and 1992.

Characteristic —	Legalized Adults (Percent)			
Characteristic	At Application <sup>a</sup>	1992		
Marital Status				
Total	100	100		
Married, spouse present	46	58		
Living with partner as married	11	10		
Married, spouse not present	6	5		
Elsewhere in United States	1	1		
Abroad	5	4		
Widowed	2	4 2 3		
Divorced	2	3		
Legally separated	2	4		
Never married	31	18		
Family Size				
Total	100	100		
1	14	10		
2	11	11		
3	17	15		
4	19	21		
5	14	17		
6	11	12		
7	6	7		
8 or more	9	6		
Mean Nuclear family size	2.87	3.36		
Nuclear family size	4.70	4.48		
	4.70	4.40		
Family Income in 1991	100	100		
Total	100	100		
\$5,999 or less	6	7		
\$6,000 - 11,999	21	15		
\$12,000 - 19,999	31 24	27 25		
\$20,000 - 29,999		26		
\$30,000 or more	18			
Percent who remitted funds abroad	64	53		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

Note: Some percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized Population Survey (LPS1) restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2).

The two surveys enable us to examine gross changes in household composition following legalization. Table 5.2 tracks changes in the average composition of units containing LPS2 respondents. The first two columns show the average number of individuals living in these households at application and again in 1992, by their relationship to the sampled legalized alien. The figures in column C are drawn from a retrospective LPS2 question concerning continuous cohabitation. In combination with the first two figures, these data identify gross flows into and out of the living unit. This information is displayed in the final two columns.

Table 5.2. Household Composition at Application, in 1992, and Implied Changes by Category of Relationship

	Mean Nur	nber Resi	Implied Mean Number of		
Category of Relationship	At Application <sup>a</sup> [A]	In 1992 [B]	Both at Application and in 1992 [C]	Exits Since Application [A-C]	Entries Since Application [B-C]
Total	4.70	4.48	3.06	1.64	1.42
Respondent	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
Spouse or partner	0.51	0.63	0.47	0.04	0.16
Children	1.36	1.73	1.17	0.19	0.56
Total other relatives, nonrelatives	1.83	1.12	0.42	1.41	0.70

a In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

Sources: At application (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample); 1992 and at both dates (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]).

Although this table confirms an increase in couple relationships and childbearing, it also shows a slight overall drop in the size of the average LPS2 household following legalization. Average household size edged down by 0.2 persons, from 4.7 to 4.5. In gross terms the shift was much more substantial. The average unit lost about 1.6 individual members and acquired another 1.4 persons not resident in the unit at application.

Spouses, partners, and children accounted for about half of all entries but almost none of the exits. Adjunct members were the source of most turnover within these units. The typical household lost 1.4 nonnuclear relatives and unrelated individuals and regained about 0.7 more over the period in question. This turnover is consistent with the pattern of immigrant households hosting newer arrivals as they become established. However, it may also reflect legalization families themselves breaking away from larger units to establish their own households.

Differences in average family structure affected the pace at which families were growing. Substantially more LPRs from Mexico than from Other Countries lived in couple relationships (71 versus 57 percent). Consequently, the median family size of those from Other Countries held steady at 3, while that of Mexican-origin LPRs rose from 4 to 5 during the post-legalization period.

Although the shift of households from extended, multiple earner units toward a more nuclear family model can be read as a sign of social assimilation, it was not without its costs. This shift involved an increase in the ratio of dependents to earners in the average household.

Immigration status of legalization household members. The term "legalization household" is something of a misnomer. In 1992, only about 40 percent of

the persons living in these households were themselves legalized aliens. The status of other members ran the gamut from U.S. citizen to unauthorized alien.

Many household members failed to qualify for legalization at the time LPS respondents applied. Groups that were ineligible included children born abroad after 1981, undocumented relatives and friends whose U.S. residence had been intermittent, and those who entered for the first time, or overstayed the terms of their admission, after January 1982. Concern about the welfare of such individuals initially prevented some eligible aliens from applying on their own behalf (Baker, 1990). The INS alleviated these concerns by implementing family fairness regulations that protected many of these individuals from deportation and authorized them to work in the United States.<sup>47</sup>

The two legalization surveys give provisional counts of the number of house-hold members in various statuses prior to and nearly 5 years following legalization. This information must be interpreted cautiously, as figures for the two dates have been obtained in markedly different ways. Data for 1987/88 were obtained through a direct match of LPS1 and LAPS records, whereas those for 1992 came from direct interviews. Survey responses could be somewhat biased, both because these questions are sensitive and because respondents may not have known the legal status of others in the household. The composite family data in Appendix tables 5C and 5D are summarized in figure 5.1.

Consider first a composite nuclear family, comprising the alien, a spouse or partner, and/or children of either of these adults. At application, this unit included an average of 2.87 persons, 1.59 of whom were legalization beneficiaries. About 0.90 persons were citizens or lawful permanent residents—most of them children born in the United States. (Well over half of the respondents' children were, in fact, U.S. citizens.) Of those for whom no LAPS record could be located, 0.16 were minor children and another 0.19 were adults. These would eventually qualify for family fairness status. At the time of application, however, most nonapplicants and rejected family members were illegally resident. By this reasoning, an average of as many as 0.39 persons per nuclear family may have been illegally resident at that time.

By 1992, the typical nuclear family had grown to 3.36 persons. As the pre-1982 cohort acquired LPR status, the average number reported as legalized aliens

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup> In October 1991, the family fairness program was replaced by the family unity program, which provided similar protections to nuclear relatives of IRCA-legalized aliens. Those previously admitted under the family fairness program had to reapply under the family unity program to retain legal status. To qualify, they had to have been resident in the United States by May 5, 1988, and to have been married to, or be the offspring of, the reference legalized alien by that date. Although neither program issued visas to these aliens, both enabled these individuals to remain in the U.S. until they could obtain a visa another way.

<sup>48</sup> The first survey only collected this information for immediate family members; the second did so for both immediate relatives and other household members.

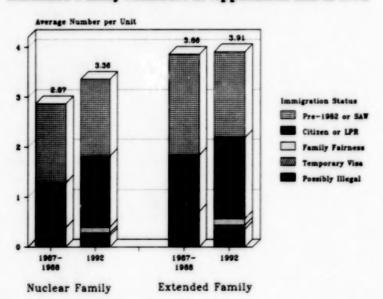


Figure 5.1 Immigration Status of Nuclear and Extended Family Members at Application and in 1992

dropped to 1.54; that of citizens and lawful permanent residents rose to 1.42. Another 0.12 nuclear family members had status under the family fairness/family unity program; 0.05 held temporary visas. No information was given for the remaining 0.23 immediate relatives, who may have been illegally resident.

The extended family profile in figure 5.1 illustrates that a similar shift was taking place with regard to parents and siblings of the respondent and his or her partner. The number of undocumented members in the typical extended family appeared to drop from about 0.71 in 1987/88 to about 0.36 in 1992.\*\*

#### Summary

The age structure of the section 245A cohort dictated certain inevitable changes in family and household composition following legalization. In the late 1980s, many applicants were still unmarried or just beginning to form families. Subsequent marriages and births increased the size of the average nuclear family unit. Simultaneously, there was a decline in the number of other relatives and unrelated persons living in these households. Thus, legalization households more closely resembled the nuclear model in 1992 than they had 5 years before.

A second transformation underway during this period involved immigration status. The number of undocumented members of legalization households

<sup>49</sup> The 1987/88 estimate includes those whose applications were rejected as well as those shown as illegal. The 1992 figure includes "other" and "don't know" responses.

appears to have declined, both due to the family unity program and the departure of certain adjunct household members from the unit.

An unanticipated outcome of legalization has been the strengthening of bonds with relatives abroad. Most legalized aliens have parents and siblings, if not also spouses, children, grandparents and/or grandchildren, outside the United States. Over half visited these relatives abroad during the 16 to 20 months prior to LPS2.

Respondents indicated that a large number of relatives abroad—perhaps as many as 30 percent of those admissible under various family preferences—might be interested in immigrating to the United States. However, as LPRs, their only relatives eligible for family preference visas were spouses and/or unmarried children. Just 17 percent of those believed to be planning to immigrate fell into these categories.

The remaining 78 percent of those thought to be hoping to immigrate could not do so unless the LPR first naturalized. It remains to be seen what share of legalized aliens will take this final step. Nearly half of all LPS2 respondents said they would definitely naturalize; another quarter said they would probably do so. These are extraordinarily high proportions for a group dominated by Mexican nationals, not previously known for high naturalization rates. Those who have been least successful in the labor market expressed the most ambivalence about naturalizing. During the first 6 months of potential application, Mexican-born LPRs were only one-sixth as likely as other legalized aliens to pursue U.S. citizenship.

## **CHAPTER 6. SOCIAL SERVICES**

While immigration reform was expected to have positive long-run social and economic consequences, its potential short-run effects were cause for concern. During the debates preceding IRCA's passage, no one could say with certainty who, or how many, would step "out of the shadows."

One short-term consequence of granting lawful permanent residence to an unknown number of aliens was the risk that national welfare roles might suddenly swell. To prevent such an occurrence, Congress denied most section 245A applicants access to Federal needs-based assistance programs for a period of 5 years. The Special Agricultural Worker program was introduced relatively late in the legislative process, however, and those drafting the bill did not include a similar waiting period for SAWs. This 5-year waiting period for section 245A applicants dampened IRCA's short-term impact on key Federal programs by phasing in the new LPRs' eligibility for such support.

However, imposing a 5-year waiting period on the new temporary resident aliens increased the vulnerability of various State and local social service programs. It was anticipated that demand for their services might climb as this low-wage population came forward to legalize. IRCA therefore established the State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant program to reimburse State authorities for certain expenses incurred on behalf of eligible legalized aliens during the transition period.

This chapter considers four issues pertaining to social services: (1) SLIAG expenditures during the transition period; (2) the economic well-being of families of legalized aliens during the final months of the waiting period; (3) the share of these families that met the means-test for Food Stamp benefits in early 1992, and that enrolled in the Food Stamp Program when the waiting period ended; and (4) survey data on legalization families' use of certain other social services during the waiting period. The accompanying volumes of this report (ACF, 1996 and FCS, 1995) address the SLIAG and Food Stamp Program issues in greater depth.

<sup>50</sup> Significant exceptions were made for certain eligible legalized aliens. These concerned four categories of Medicaid expenditures: emergency care and pregnancy-related care, as well as medical care for SSI-eligible ELAs and ELAs below the age of 18.

#### The SLIAG Program: Transitional Reimbursements

The State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant program was included in IRCA to offset some of the fiscal repercussions of the legalization program. SLIAG was a categorical grant intended to reimburse State and local governments for some of the costs of providing public assistance, education, and public health services to those aliens adjusting status under sections 245A and 210 of the INA.

In slightly over 7 years of operation (late FY87 to FY94), the SLIAG program reimbursed State and local governments a total of \$3.5 billion. This translates to an average of \$1,167 per eligible legalized alien over the life of the program.

More than two-thirds of reimbursements (69 percent) were for public assistance, amounting to about \$2.4 billion over the program's life. The vast majority of these public assistance costs pertained to medical services. Although ELAs were generally barred from using Medicaid, exceptions were made for pregnant women, children, the elderly and handicapped, and emergency care. SLIAG public assistance reimbursements broke down as follows: 38 percent for Medicaid; 52 percent for other forms of medical assistance; 2 percent for mental health and substance abuse; 6 percent for cash assistance; and just 2 percent for all other costs, including food, housing, and administrative functions.

Educational programs amounted to 19 percent of the total SLIAG funding, or about \$673.1 million over the life of the program. Allowable educational programs included primary and secondary education for ELA children, adult basic education and adult classes to provide English language, U.S. history, and civics instruction to enable ELAs to pass the INS-administered test for permanent residency required by IRCA.<sup>51</sup> IRCA limited educational reimbursement to no more than \$500 per student per year for the first 3 years of schooling in the United States. Even with these restrictions, SLIAG funds allowed States to expand their existing adult education programs to meet the educational needs of the newly legalized population.

Public health assistance services were allowable for reimbursement under SLIAG beginning in May 1987 (5 months earlier than other SLIAG-related services). As these services protect the health of the general public, no means test was required. To a large extent, these services focused on contagious diseases such as tuberculosis and sexually transmitted diseases. In addition, the costs of immunization services, family planning and prenatal care, and some supportive and environmental-related services were reimbursable. Furthermore, although SLIAG did not provide public assistance or educational benefits

<sup>51</sup> ELAs were considered to have satisfied this requirement if they made "satisfactory progress" in a course of instruction designed to cover the material in the test. Many ELAs took the 60-hour course in lieu of the test.

to aliens whose phase I applications were still pending, there was no similar restriction with respect to public health assistance.

Over the life of the program, approved costs for public health assistance amounted to \$285 million. The majority of these costs (59 percent) involved screening and preventative services. For a detailed discussion of SLIAG program costs, the reader is referred to the DHHS Administration for Children and Families report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: The State Legalization Assistance Grant Program, Final Report: 1995.

#### The Economic Well-Being of Legalized Families

Legalized aliens whose financial circumstances qualified them for means-tested Federal assistance could not apply on their own behalf until 5 years after receiving temporary resident status. For members of the LPS2 sample, this meant the waiting period would lift sometime between October 1992 and September 1996. The second legalization survey was in the field from April through August of 1992, before the first respondents became eligible for Federal assistance. It provides several measures of the economic well-being of legalized households shortly before gaining access to the safety nets available to other needy Americans.

As noted in Chapter 4, the educational credentials of most legalized aliens placed them at a disadvantage in the U.S. labor market, not only relative to natives but also to other foreign-born minorities. As illegal and eventually legalized aliens, the cohort found ways to compensate for low earnings. These, in turn, reduced their demand for public support.

For instance, proportionately more legalized than other prime-aged men were economically active. Although their participation rate dropped to 94 percent in 1992, it remained well above the 88 percent registered for all U.S. men at that time. As a result, there were fewer working-age dependents in the legalized than in the overall U.S. population.

Likewise, there were proportionately fewer female-headed households, the group most likely to find its way onto public welfare rolls. Although, in 1992, the survey population included proportionately more partnerships and fewer marriages than did the U.S. population generally, 7 out of 10 adults in both populations lived in established couple relationships. Almost half (46 percent) of all legalized adults resided with their spouse and children. Relatively few (4 percent) were single parents. Just 5 percent of legalized households with children were headed by women, compared with 26 percent nationally.<sup>52</sup>

<sup>52</sup> For U.S. data, see Census (1994), table 72.

Moreover, legalized families tended to reside in extended households, pooling earnings and basic expenses. Although this pattern was slowly changing, in 1992, 24 percent of their households still included extended family members; 14 percent contained nonrelatives. Fifty percent reported two or more workers, and nearly 20 percent reported at least three earners.

Family income. Even when LPRs residing alone were excluded from the base, the combined income of legalized families was typically quite low. Appendix table 6A shows that in 1991 34 percent of legalization families, as compared with 17 percent of families nationwide, lived on annual incomes of less than \$15,000. Only 18 percent of legalization families, as compared with 59 percent of U.S. families, had incomes exceeding \$30,000.

The family income variable summarizes the financial impacts of some of the characteristics discussed in previous chapters of this report. Most striking is the share of all families with less than \$15,000 in income: 45 percent of those in Texas, and 49 percent of those in families where the respondent spoke no English. The two subgroups whose family income distribution came closest to resembling the national average were high school graduates and legalized aliens from Other Countries.

Remittances abroad. Not only did incomes generally fall short of the national average, but they helped support family "members" living abroad. Because 85 percent of all legalized adults had immediate relatives living outside of the United States, 33 remittance behavior was widespread.

Between 1988 and 1991, as families reconfigured in the United States, the share remitting funds dropped from 64 to 52 percent. Likewise, the average annual amount remitted fell from \$1,148 to \$821. Nonetheless, this still represented a large sum of money considering the incomes of legalized aliens and their families.

Table 6A shows that those who arrived as children, presumably with many of their immediate relatives, were less likely than other LPRs to remit. Those who arrived most recently and had the least time to reunify their families in this country were more likely to send money home and generally sent more. The amount sent by families of male respondents was on average twice that sent by families of female respondents. The groups most likely to send remittances were the recently arrived, Central Americans, those who spoke English relatively poorly, those living in States other than California or Texas, and those with family incomes of more than \$20,000. Well over half of these groups sent money and gifts in 1991, and their remittances were among the largest reported by any group.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>53</sup> Over 5 percent had foreign-resident spouses, 10 percent minor children, 7 percent adult children, 61 percent parents, and 74 percent siblings living outside the United States.

There appeared to be a correspondence between family income and funds remitted. Yet the well-educated, the English-proficient, and those from Other Countries, who might be expected to remit more or to do so more frequently, were not exceptional in this regard. It remains to be determined whether a larger share of their immediate relatives were already resident in the United States.

Other indices of standard of living. Given their extended financial responsibilities and limited incomes, legalized families appeared to have few discretionary funds. A striking 61 percent reported that their families had less than \$1,000 in cash, bank deposits, or investments. Just 22 percent reported having more than \$3,000.<sup>54</sup> Not only did the paucity of resources stand in the way of self-employment, but it also deterred homeownership. About 64 percent of the housing units in this country are owner-occupied, as compared to just 39 percent of those in which legalized aliens live.

More telling are figures on telephone access and vehicle ownership. In the early 1990s, nearly twice as many legalized as other U.S. households went without phone service, i.e., 9 versus 5 percent. Moreover, when respondents in low-income families were asked about vehicle ownership, about one-quarter said their families had no vehicle of any kind. In the population at large, just 12 percent of families with less than \$35,000 in income had no car.

Health insurance of family members. Another particularly telling index is the absence of private health insurance. At the time of LPS2, legalized aliens were still prohibited from seeking Medicaid assistance except for emergency, maternity, and child health care. Unless they obtained private coverage through work (discussed in Chapter 4) or directly from an insurance company, other medical expenses were likely to be out-of-pocket.

According to recent data from the Employee Benefit Research Institute (EBRI, 1995), 16 percent of U.S. citizens and 43 percent of noncitizens lack health insurance coverage. By comparison, 52 percent of LPS2 respondents had no private health insurance coverage. Although even fewer probably had such coverage when they first arrived in this country, its absence may not initially have been cause for immediate alarm. Those who were single, in their 20s, and in good health may have gotten by for a time with only minor medical attention. Yet with age and parenthood, medical bills become more frequent. The expansion of legalization families increased their vulnerability to health care costs.

<sup>54</sup> The Food and Consumer Service (FCS, 1995) found that legalized aliens tend to have fewer assets and less income than similarly situated members of the general population.

<sup>55</sup> For U.S. data, see Census (1994), table 1214.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>56</sup> For U.S. data, see Census (1994), table 1223.

However, Appendix table 6B suggests that the cohort's private health care coverage may have deteriorated during the post-legalization period. It appears that at the individual level, the share of respondents lacking private health insurance edged up slightly from 50 to 52 percent.

Because questions on family health coverage differed in the two surveys, it is impossible to develop comparable estimates of family coverage for the two dates. However, as of 1992, 2 out of 5 legalization families (40 percent) reported having no health care coverage whatsoever.<sup>57</sup>

A disproportionate share of the relatively uninsured were women, newer arrivals, and/or persons from Mexico or Central America. About 60 percent of all elementary-educated LPRs, and 66 percent of those unable to speak English, were without private coverage.

Questions about publicly funded health coverage were addressed to respondents, but not their families. About 2 percent of respondents said they were covered by Medicare and another 7 percent by Medicaid or other State general medical assistance. Roughly two out of five respondents had neither private nor public insurance, forcing them to defer medical care or to pay whatever medical bills they might incur out-of-pocket.

#### Use of Social Service Programs: The Food Stamp Program

Concern that Food Stamp usage might surge at the end of the waiting period prompted the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Service to seek information on the assets and income of section 245A beneficiaries. Toward this end, the FCS joined DOL in sponsoring the 1992 Legalized Population Follow-up Survey. Their findings, presented in the FCS report, Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Impact of the Legalization Program on the Food Stamp Program (1995), are briefly summarized below.

Even though LPS2 respondents were still categorically ineligible for FSP benefits, the household income and asset data they provided at that time have enabled Federal officials to project eventual FSP eligibility. While eligibility criteria differ from one Federal program to the next, the FSP eligibility estimates are a convenient yardstick by which to compare the economic security of legalized and other U.S. families. The estimates are a demographically adjusted measure of the collective effects of work patterns, wages, assets, family size, and household composition on the group's overall economic well-being.

<sup>57</sup> The "family coverage" shown in table 6B pertains to all legalized aliens living with LPS-defined relatives; persons living alone are excluded from this index.

Findings on Food Stamp Program eligibility. The Food and Consumer Service (FCS, 1995) estimates that although legalized aliens themselves were still barred from receiving benefits, more than one-quarter (27 percent) of their families passed both the asset and income tests for FSP eligibility in 1992. Many family members were citizens or LPRs, and therefore entitled to assistance.

Table 6.1 highlights FCS findings regarding the characteristics of eligible families. This table contrasts eligible and ineligible legalization families with those of FSP-eligible units nationwide in 1992. It illustrates the links between low-wage employment, demographics, and social service demand.

Legalization units were substantially larger and likely to be headed by younger adults than were other disadvantaged families. They were less likely to be headed by women and, when female-headed, were more likely to include other adults. Because of the relative youth of section 245A beneficiaries, a disproportionate share of the legalized units that were FSP-eligible also included children—84 versus 47 percent overall. These units were twice as likely as the average eligible unit to include pre-schoolers.

Earlier, figure 3.4 noted that members of the overall Hispanic population are typically better educated than members of the legalized population. In light of this disparity, the eligibility differentials shown in table 6.2 are somewhat surprising. The FCS analysis found that the share of all households meeting the means test for FSP eligibility was actually larger for Hispanic units nationwide than for legalized families (31 versus 27 percent, respectively).

Table 6.1 illustrates that section 245A beneficiaries face the dilemma of the working poor. Fifty-five percent of the legalization families whose assets and earnings fell below the threshold for Food Stamp eligibility were headed by a working adult. Another 19 percent were headed by someone who was actively looking for work. Just 26 percent were headed by an adult who neither worked nor was looking for work. The comparable figures for FSP-eligible units nationwide were 32 percent employed, 15 percent unemployed, and 54 percent economically inactive.

Consequently, FSP-eligible legalization families reported higher monthly earnings than other eligible units, i.e., \$1,040 versus \$744. Their earnings, however, typically supported nearly twice as many members, including many small children. The data suggest that legalized low-wage earners, largely barred from public assistance programs, may have had difficulty ensuring that their families had adequate nutrition.

Food Stamp Program participation. As noted earlier, food stamp eligibility does not necessarily translate into participation. It is estimated that only about

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>58</sup> By comparison, just 25 percent of the eligible Hispanic units were headed by working adults.

Table 6.1. Characteristics of Food Stamp Eligible and Ineligible Legalization Families and of Eligible U.S. Families, 1992

Characteristic		on 245A red Aliens	FSP-Eligible Units Jan. 1992		
	Eligible	Ineligible	Total	Hispanio	
Mean Household Size	4.4	4.3	2.4	2.9	
Median age	35 6	34 9	11	39 10	
Composition of FSP-defined Unit					
Total	100.0 27.1	19.8	100.0 71.1	100.0 62.3	
One Adult	15.3	2.5	27.3	31.5	
Male with children		0.7	1.3	1.2	
No children	2.1 9.7	16.6	42.5	29.6	
Multiple Adults	72.8	80.3	28.9	37.7	
Unit includes children	66.0	58.2	17.9 13.6	27.0	
Married couple	47.0 12.8	44.4 8.1	3.5	21.6 3.9	
Not married, female head Not married, male head	6.2	5.7	0.8	1.5	
Unit includes no children	6.8	22.1	10.5	10.3	
Unit includes only children	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.4	
Includes adults ages 60+	8.2	7.6	32.7	23.5	
Includes children ages 0 to 17	83.5	61.3	47.1	60.1	
0 to 4	50.8	33.8	25.3	32.6	
5 to 17	70.9	49.3	35.7	46.6	
Labor Force Status of Household Head					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Employed	55.0	84.8	31.5	25.0	
Unemployed	19.3	4.7	14.8	13.4	
Not in labor force	25.7	10.5	53.6	53.5	
Occupation of Household Head					
Total	100.0	190.0	100.0	100.0	
White collar	9.9	23.0	33.9	26.7	
Blue collar	90.0	76.8	66.1	73.3	
Percent with earnings	73.8	85.7	28.3	34.5	
Average monthly earnings	\$1,040	\$2,162	\$744	\$841	
Percent of units receiving					
AFDC	12.0	1.6	22.4	26.9	
SSI	0.9	1.3	19.1	17.2	
GA	2.8	0.5	5.3	5.6	
UI	8.0	4.8	4.6	5.5	
Total households	246,317 947	659,069 3,065	13,982,931 33,849	2,117,088 865	

Note: Some percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

Source: Food and Consumer Service: Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Impact of the Legalization Program on the Food Stamp Program, 1995, (tables III.14, III.15, III.16 and III.18).

Table 6.2. Food Stamp Program Eligibility and Participation:
Comparison of the Section 24 A Legalized Population,
the Total U.S. and Hispania Populations, 1994

	Legalized Population	U.S. Population	Hispanic Population
Households			
Percent eligible	27	15	31
Percent participating	16	10	19
FSP participation rate	58	69	61
Persons			
Percent eligible	27	13	28
Percent participating	13	10	15
FSP participation rate	49	74	53

Source: Food and Consumer Service: Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act: Effects of the Legalization Program on the Food Stamp Program, (table 2).

69 percent of all U.S. families qualifying for Food Stamp benefits actually claim them. In 1992, only 13 percent of LPS2 respondents' families (roughly half of meeting the means test) actually received FSP benefits. Most of the individuals receiving benefits were U.S.-born children who were eligible in their own right. Nearly 70 percent of the units receiving Food Stamps at that time reported having wage income; 15 percent included unemployed workers.

As the end of the waiting period neared, FCS officials sought to determine how the pre-1982 cohort would affect national demand for FSP benefits. What share of those needy enough to qualify would actually claim benefits? The LPS2 survey explored this issue by asking about awareness of this Federal program. Four out of five legalized respondents said they were aware of the FSP program. About one-fourth understood how to apply for benefits, although none could do so on their own behalf at that time.

The FCS undertook a second phase of their study in the spring of 1994 to determine what these legalized aliens did after the close of the watting period. By this time, very few section 245A beneficiaries remained categorically excluded from the program. Therefore, FCS case records were matched against LAPS data to determine what share of those on the FSP roles had legalized under section 245A of INA. This process was repeated in each of the eight States where members of the pre-1982 cohort were most numerous.

Like means-eligible families 2 years before, the legalized families who actually claimed benefits were generally large. They often included workers whose

Only one percent of the households receiving food stamp benefits included the legalized alien in the food stamp grant at that time.

assets and earnings lifted the family only marginally above the poverty threshold.

The FCS study found that the share of all legalization households participating in the Food Stamp program grew modestly following the end of the waiting period, from 13 to 16 percent. However, the share of all legalized individuals participating in FSP grew briskly, from 1 to 13 percent. Most of the increase in Food Stamp usage appeared to have occurred in households that already received benefits, as the newly eligible LPRs were added to the recipient Food Stamp unit.

By comparing actual food stamp usage with the LPS2 eligibility estimates, FCS researchers estimated this cohort's FSP participation rates, shown in table 6.2. Legalized aliens appeared to be nearly twice as likely as other U.S. residents to qualify for benefits. Yet their propensity to claim benefits was somewhat below average. About 49 percent of the eligible legalized aliens (compared with 74 percent of eligible persons nationwide) actually claimed benefits. FSP participation rates of legalized individuals were also low relative to those of the overall Hispanic population. However, they were nearing Hispanic levels, causing FCS researchers to conclude that subsequent increases were likely to be small.

Because of family size, average benefits per legalized family exceed the national average, i.e., \$201 versus \$172 per month, respectively. Yet, for legalization households in the eight States studied, this amounts to an average of just \$58 per person per month, compared with \$69 per person for the average FSP household.

The Food and Consumer Service found that legalized aliens made up fewer than 1 percent (0.7 percent) of all FSP participants and legalized households only about 1 percent of all participant FSP households in 1994. Their benefits amounted to about 0.6 percent of the total issued. Because of their geographic concentration, in the State of California, legalization households comprised 6 percent of all Food Stamp households and legalized aliens about 3 percent of total FSP participants. For a full discussion of this research, the reader is referred to the FCS report (1995).

#### Receipt of Other Publicly Provided Social Services

Information on eligibility for, and receipt of, other services is much more limited. However, the LPS2 survey does provide an overview of services used by legalization households in mid-1992. The same factors at work in shaping Food Stamp eligibility, i.e., employment, wages, family size and household composition, influence usage of these other programs, as well.

The Congressional Budget Office recently developed national estimates of the share of all families receiving various types of Federal assistance (CBO, 1994).

These CBO estimates for all U.S. families, and families with children, are juxtaposed with comparable figures for legalized families in table 6.3.

Age structure strongly influenced program involvement. Because of their relative youth, only 3 percent of legalization families included persons receiving Social Security benefits. The comparable figure for U.S. families nationwide was 29 percent. By the same token, legalization families were only half as likely as other U.S. families to receive Supplemental Security Income (SSI).

Unlike their native counterparts, relatively few legalization households had become completely disengaged from the labor market. Therefore, proportionately fewer claimed unemployment benefits.

In 1992, about 2 percent of legalized respondents said they were covered by Medicare, compared to 24 percent of families nationwide in 1990. Coverage under Medicaid was more widespread, coming closer to national levels. Because of their age structure, legalized households had many maternity and child health expenses, at least some of which were reimbursable under SLIAG.

Whereas the legalized population's participation in programs for the elderly was minimal, contacts with child-focused programs were more frequent. LPRs could not apply for AFDC benefits for themselves, but they were entitled to do

Table 6.3. Percent of Families Receiving Various Forms of Income Assistance: Legalization Families, 1992, and U.S. Families, 1990.

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Total F	amilies	Families With Children		
Source of Income Assistance	LPS2ª	US 90	LPS2 <sup>b</sup>	US 90	
Cash social insurance programs					
Social Security	3	29	2	10	
Unemployment Insurance	6	8	6	11	
Health insurance programs					
Medicare	2	24	26	6	
Medicaid	8	10	98	16	
Means-tested assistance programs					
Cash benefits					
AFDC	6	6	7	13	
SSI	2	4	1	3	
In-kind					
Food stamps	15	10	18	17	

a Recipients themselves may not have been legalized aliens.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Percent of such families in which the LPS respondent is covered; no information available on coverage of other family members.

Sources: Legalized population (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. data (Congressional Budget Office, Reducing Entitlement Spending: A CBO Study, September 1994. Totals derived from disaggregated CB() estimates.)

so for qualifying U.S.-born children. In 1992, about 7 percent of all legalization families with children, compared with 13 percent nationwide, received some AFDC benefits. Participation in the reduced-price school meals program was permitted, and because of limited family resources was relatively widespread. About 23 percent of all legalized families, and over 34 percent of those with school-aged children, had members enrolled in this program.

#### Summary

During their first 5 years of legal residence, section 245A beneficiaries were required to forego most forms of Federal needs-based assistance, demonstrating their economic self-sufficiency. Exceptions were made in the case of emergencies as well as maternal and child health care. Children of legalized aliens (most of them born in the United States) were entitled to participate in the reduced-price school meals program. Because of typically low wages and expanding families, many had to use these allowable services.

The SLIAG program, established to cushion the impact of legalization on State-funded programs, channeled \$3.5 billion to affected States over a 7-year period as partial reimbursement for services rendered to the newly legalized population. Nearly 70 percent of the funds dispersed went to public assistance programs, with the majority of these funds being spent on medical assistance. Another 19 percent of SLIAG funds were spent on educational programs, including adult language and civics courses designed to prepare ELAs to pass the examinations required in phase II of the application process.

Legalized adults were still strongly attached to the labor market in 1992, albeit often in low-wage jobs. The departure of many nonnuclear relatives and unrelated adults from legalization households often reduced the households' earnings capacity, even as nuclear families were growing. Thus family incomes, already well below the national norm, were being spread over a growing number of individuals—often including relatives abroad.

Three out of five families had less than \$1,000 in liquid assets. One in ten had no telephone. Rates of vehicle- and homeownership were also relatively low. Two out of every five legalized families reported having no private health insurance coverage for family members.

Their precarious financial situation placed most legalized aliens among the working poor. Nearly one-quarter of all legalization families had children who were receiving reduced-price breakfasts and/or lunches at school. Based on

<sup>60</sup> The Census Bureau (1995) estimates that in the summer of 1993 the share of 15 to 44 year old mothers receiving AFDC payments ranged from 7 percent for whites to 9 percent for the foreign born, 19 percent for persons of Hispanic origin, and 26 percent for those of African American descent.

family structure, assets, income, and expenses in 1992, the Food and Consumer Service estimated that more than one-quarter of legalization households met the eligibility criteria for Food Stamp Program benefits. These data suggest that during IRCA's period of "work, not welfare," the earnings of legalized families that included working adults often fell below the national threshold for adequate nutrition, established by the Food Stamp Program.

An analysis of FSP participation in 1994, after the waiting period for Federal assistance was largely over, revealed that by that time 13 percent of the legalized population were FSP recipients. Despite high relative eligibility, the share claiming benefits for which they qualified was lower than in either the overall U.S. population or the Hispanic population.

## **CHAPTER 7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The legalization program set forth in section 245A of the INA had several objectives. These were to (1) reduce the size of the illegally resident population; (2) integrate the illegally resident population into the tax system; (3) reduce their labor market vulnerability; and, (4) through English language training, encourage their social integration. To what extent have these goals been met?

#### **Satisfying Legalization Program Goals**

INS statistics in Chapter 2 illustrate that IRCA substantially reduced the size of the illegally resident population. Under section 245A alone, about 1.6 million long-term illegal residents became legitimate members of American society. As a short-run solution to the numbers problem, this program was clearly a success. However, because illegal flows have not been curtailed, the stock of unauthorized residents has continued to grow (Warren, 1995).

A second objective of the legalization program was to integrate former illegal aliens into the tax system. Underlying this goal was the assumption that illegal aliens did not usually pay taxes. This assumption has since been called into question. Following IRCA's passage, legalized aliens deluged the Social Security Administration with requests to straighten out their accounts—tacit evidence that most had paid Social Security taxes all along, albeit to fictitious accounts. This evidence was corroborated by a recent survey of illegal Mexican workers in the United States. Donato and Massey (1995) found that most such respondents reported paying various taxes, if only to avoid detection. Further support comes from legalization survey data that show payroll deductions to be the rule in most "illegal immigrant industries."

Two major exceptions are private household services and agriculture, where tax violations may be more widespread. Yet the LPS surveys show that even prior to legalization, members of the pre-1982 cohort had begun to forsake these industries. As they moved elsewhere, the likelihood of their paying taxes through payroll deduction increased—with or without work authorization.

Third, the legalization program was intended to diminish workplace vulnerability. This cohort's continuing withdrawal from agriculture, private household services, and other low-wage jobs clearly implies diminishing vulnerability.

However, data show that the sufficiently skilled were often able to find better jobs without work authorization, while the most unskilled could not do so even with appropriate documents. Those who benefited most from legalization were aliens who also helped themselves. A disproportionate share of the occupational and wage gains registered since the late 1980s have occurred to LPRs who attended nonmandatory language classes or other courses of instruction in the wake of legalization. Those who could not do so, due to illiteracy, lack of English skills, or other reasons, remained somewhat vulnerable.

Finally, there is the matter of social integration through English language training. It appears that mandatory classes had little impact on this population's overall English proficiency. Nonetheless, these classes did perform a valuable function by welcoming legalization applicants into American society and encouraging their further efforts at self-improvement. Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark have shown that those who continued with classroom and on-the-job training were able to reap the greatest benefits from the legalization experience. To the extent that mandatory English training encouraged other investments in human capital, they were indeed successful.

#### **IRCA's Impacts on Legalized Aliens**

The section 245A legalization program has had both societal and individual effects. The parallel submissions on the Effects of the Immigration Reform and Control Act, by both the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Health and Human Services, look at IRCA's programmatic and fiscal consequences. This volume has focused primarily on individual and family effects.

It is clear from Chapter 3 that at the time they applied for legalization, the majority of pre-1982 applicants possessed relatively little human capital. Most were still young adults, had not entered—much less graduated from—high school, and knew little or no English. Their greatest competitive strength may have been their eagerness to work, discussed in Chapter 4.

However, the same attributes that gained the pre-1982 cohort entry into the U.S. labor market appear to have retarded their subsequent economic integration. As young illegal aliens with few viable alternatives, members of this cohort were willing to work long hours at low-paying jobs, oftentimes under conditions American workers might reject. Unhampered by family responsibilities, they evaluated pay scales, benefits, and working conditions relative to those abroad.

However, as Chapter 5 has demonstrated, in the decade or more since their first arrival, personal circumstances have changed. By 1992 this cohort's family responsibilities, financial needs, and wage expectations were more like those of other Americans. Yet half of all pre-1982 legalized aliens still had less than 8 years of schooling—a severe disadvantage, even relative to high school drop-outs.

Moreover, they were competing for low-skilled jobs not only with better educated natives, but also with less demanding recent entrants. Wages for unskilled labor had stagnated, and it was increasingly difficult to retain, let alone improve, their relative economic standing. Their language and educational deficits threatened to permanently mark these legalized aliens as entry-level workers.

Yet such attributes are not entirely immutable. Chapters 3 and 4 illustrate that after receiving work authorization, close to half of all legalized workers took steps to enhance some of their basic skills. About 32 percent enrolled in English language courses beyond those required for phase II application. At least 12 percent attended formal schooling and 16 percent received vocational training—both largely in English.

Kossoudji and Cobb-Clark (forthcoming) illustrate that some of the most powerful effects of legalization were realized by cultivating English skills, education, and training. The pre-1982 cohort appears to have been effectively cut off from educational and training opportunities until its members were able to legalize. IRCA may have reduced occupational churning and enhanced wage growth by permitting pre-1982 LPRs and their employers to invest in skill development.

The various studies by Cobb-Clark and Kossoudji provide valuable insights into this process. Their studies found that English proficiency, education, and skills had little bearing on initial job placement within the U.S. labor market. However, during the years leading up to legalization, human capital did influence subsequent occupational and wage mobility. Although upward mobility was limited, during the week prior to application, English-proficient, skilled applicants were noticeably better positioned within the labor market than were the unskilled and those unable to speak English.

The advent of work authorization acted as a "union card," fostering widespread occupational mobility. Legalization also fostered widespread investments in education, training, and language skills, which—at least for Mexican men—reaped substantial wage gains.

The effects of human capital on upward mobility were more muted in single period analyses, i.e., before and after legalization, than they were over the entire period since U.S. entry. A comparison of each individual's occupation and wages at entry and in 1992 showed that education (or the lack thereof) did indeed enhance or impede long-term progress. Data from the legalization surveys suggest that there may have been three tiers of legalized aliens who experienced quite different magnitudes of impact.

The first of these, composed mainly of nonimmigrant overstayers from Asia and Europe, were relatively well educated and often English proficient. A disproportionate share appear to have been admitted on student visas. Although at entry they took much the same types of jobs as other members of the pre-1982

cohort, their doing so often represented a drop in occupational rank from jobs previously held. Over time, many members of this group sought additional education and/or regained some of the occupational and wage status lost at entry—even without work authorization. Multivariate analysis shows that IRCA's labor market impacts on this group were modest. Their subjective assessments confirm this finding.

A second component of the legalized population arrived with a grade-school education or less and little or no facility in English. Most of this group entered the United States without inspection, coming from Mexico or Central America in search of unskilled jobs. From the beginning, their skill profile made them outliers in the U.S. workforce. Often unable to speak English or read in any language, they could not acquire enough training to break out of their dilemma, even after receiving work authorization. Models of wage growth and occupational change show that the benefits reaped by this group following legalization were also modest. Not surprisingly, LPRs in this category were somewhat disappointed at IRCA's labor market outcomes.

The third group, most favorably affected by legalization, was composed of LPRs who had attended secondary school and could speak some English. As illegal aliens, these members of the pre-1982 cohort were not fully competitive with natives but could reasonably hope to become so. Soon after applying for legalization, many members of this group enrolled in educational and vocational programs. By completing GEDs and/or studying such fields as word processing and other computer skills, equipment repair and operation, they began to narrow the gulf between themselves and other U.S. workers. Members of this group gave legalization the highest marks for improving their labor market opportunities, a perception borne out in multivariate analysis.

Beneficiaries of section 245A of the INA have demonstrated their eagerness to succeed in the American economy. Legalized men are exceptionally active in the labor market. Both men and women holding jobs typically work full time. To economize, families have resided in extended family households, often with unrelated individuals. There are relatively few female-headed legalization households.

However, because of the age distribution of this population, a disproportionate share of legalized women now have parental responsibilities that have dampened their labor market participation relative to that of native women. Household incomes have been further strained by the fact that many extended family members have moved away to set up their own households.

Thus in 1992, after 5 years of legal U.S. residence, a disproportionate share of legalization families were still below the poverty threshold. About 6 percent of these families received AFDC for children who were born in this country. About 23 percent had school-age children who were receiving reduced price meals at school.

Food Stamp Program officials have determined that legalization families are somewhat more likely than other families to qualify for Food Stamp benefits because of their young families and low earnings. However, in 1994, legalization families were less likely than other units to claim benefits for which they qualified. This leads to IRCA's second set of impacts, those on public programs.

#### **IRCA's Impacts on Public Programs**

Chapters 2, 5, and 6 have summarized several programmatic impacts, many of which are discussed in greater detail in the companion volumes of this report. More than 2.6 million illegal aliens attained lawful permanent residence in the United States through IRCA's various legalization programs. Given the number who came forward to apply, impacts on public services were predictable. Indeed, the ebb and flow of demand for these services was dictated by IRCA's iegislated timetable.

Extending LPR status to such a large number of aliens simultaneously was a complex process. Because certain restrictions that applied to section 245A applicants were not broadened to encompass SAWs, the two groups have acquired various rights and responsibilities at a different pace. Special Agricultural Workers were the first to be granted LPR status. In so doing, they gained most of the rights and responsibilities of other U.S. residents, including the right to cross U.S. borders, work in the United States, and request certain forms of Federal assistance when necessary. After 5 years in LPR status, SAWs could apply for naturalization.

The section 245A legalization program, which has been the subject of this report, moved on a slower track. It was through this two-phase "pre-1982" program that the majority of IRCA-legalized aliens gained LPR status. During phase I, section 245A applicants received temporary resident alien status. They were given up to 42 months in which to complete phase II applications, from which they could gain lawful permanent residence.

Temporary resident alien status gained members of the pre-1982 cohort the right to work in and cross the borders of the United States without fear of apprehension. However, it did not entitle them to petition for the immigration of immediate relatives or to apply for Federal needs-based assistance. Rights to petition were contingent on the outcomes of their phase II and/or naturalization applications. Regardless of legal status or financial circumstances, most members of the pre-1982 cohort could not request AFDC, Medicaid, and Food Stamp benefits until the fifth anniversary of their phase I application. In the meantime, their job mobility, wages, and working conditions were expected to improve due to work authorization—an expectation borne out to some degree by the legalization surveys.

This implicit timetable led to the fluctuations in demand for specific governmental services noted throughout this report. In turn, impacts have been

registered by INS officials processing phase I and phase II applications, State and local officials involved with SLIAG-funded services, State Department personnel who process visa petitions, officials of the Food Stamp, AFDC, and Medicaid programs, and, most recently, INS officials involved with naturalization. The processing of SAW and pre-1982 applications is now largely completed. Food Stamp Program officials also believe that this population's requests for FSP benefits may already have peaked. The INS has recently instituted new procedures to handle the growing volume of naturalization applications. Requests for family-sponsorship visas will continue and are likely to increase as cohort members naturalize.

#### Conclusion

This report has examined various outcomes of the legalization program set forth in section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act. These effects have been both programmatic and personal, influencing national policy as well as demographic and labor market decisions.

It is important to recognize that the 1.6 million illegal aliens who adjusted status under this program were not new entrants to the United States. All had been resident in this country for at least 5 years. Their presence would have had demographic and economic repercussions even if IRCA had not been enacted. The law simply gave these long-term residents the same rights enjoyed by other Americans.

Bringing them out of the shadows, however, has focused attention on the size, widespread dispersion, and economic diversity of this population. A small share have been surprisingly successful, establishing their own businesses or earning advanced academic degrees. A much larger share have invested in basic vocational skills, thereby enhancing their own productivity and wages. Regrettably, some have been unable to realize the full benefits of legalization.

The new LPRs are now more broadly dispersed across industries and occupations than they were prior to legalization. Nonetheless, in 1992 they were still six times as likely as other Americans to hold private household jobs, where wages were low, benefits few, and payments toward Social Security retirement uncertain. A disproportionate share also remained in the apparel industry, construction, restaurants, and other "immigrant" sectors.

This study suggests that employers who limit their own costs by hiring low-wage unauthorized aliens often pass those costs on to society as a whole. Foreign workers recruited for their youth, inexperience, and vulnerability do not remain so indefinitely. With time—regardless of their legal status—they mature. Most form families, bear children, and/or bring family members in from abroad. Eventually they seek a standard of living for themselves and their families similar to that enjoyed by other U.S. residents.

Yet, even with lawful permanent residence, lack of English skills and educational credentials may severely handicap their efforts to achieve this standard. Legal status, employment, and long hours of work notwithstanding, many of those admitted under section 245A have had difficulty keeping their families out of poverty. During the period when they were barred from access to most federal "safety nets," at least one-quarter of this population lived on incomes that would otherwise have qualified them for Food Stamp benefits. Over half of these qualifying households (55 percent) were headed by workers. Most included school-age children fed, in part, through the reduced-price school meals program.

The majority of legalized aliens express interest in becoming full-fledged "Americans" through naturalization. Whether or not they do so, most intend to remain in this country when they retire. They and their families now share the American dream.

Unfortunately, many also share the dilemma of the working poor. In today's economy, even lawful permanent residence may not fully erase the obstacles posed by a lack of formal education and language skills.

# APPENDIX A:

SUPPORTING TABLES

State of Residence	Total	Section 245A (Pre-1982)	Section 210 (SAW)	
Total <sup>a</sup>	3,040,948	1,763,434	1,277,514	
California	1,622,051	956,302	665,749	
Гехая	449,197	309,822	139,375	
New York	174,189	118,572	55,617	
Illinois	160,419	121,355	39,064	
Florida	151,632	50,336	101,296	
Arizona	82,898	29,364	53,534	
New Jersey	45,983	29,217		
Washington	37,924	9,927	16,766 27,997	
New Mexico	28,223	16,371		
Oregon	27,463	4,282	11,852	
Georgia	24,322		23,181	
Colorado		7,306	17,016	
Nevada	22,849	10,477	12,372	
	20,454	11,236	9,218	
Virginia	19,434	10,202	9,232	
Massachusetts	18,311	9,900	8,411	
North Carolina	16,989	2,941	14,048	
Maryland	12,536	8,717	3,819	
Oklahoma	11,068	6,909	4,159	
daho	10,116	2,205	7,911	
Pennsylvania	9,306	3,149	6,157	
Puerto Rico	9,027	3,828	5,199	
Kansas	7,936	3,830	4,106	
Utah	7,447	2,798	4,649	
Michigan	6,879	2,498	4,381	
Connecticut	6,355	3,287	3,068	
District of Columbia	6,034	4,565	1,469	
Wisconsin	4,336	2,832	1,504	
Nebraska	3,678	1,185	2,493	
ndiana	3,588	1,841	1,747	
South Carolina	3,327	861	2,466	
ouisiana	3,019	1.971	1,048	
Rhode Island	2,960	2,166	794	
Ohio	2,872	1,618	1,254	
Arkansas	2,780	762	2,018	
owa	2,560	816	1,744	
Cennessee	2,436	1,171	1,265	
ławaii	2,393	1,373	1,020	
<b>Missouri</b>	2,224	1,294	930	
finnesota .	2,175	1,264	911	
Mabama	1,805	593	1,212	
Delaware	1,312	299	1,013	
irgin Islands	1,179	901	278	
Vyoming	1,072	671	401	
laska	781	385	396	
Kentucky	750	428	322	
fississippi	713	384	329	
lew Hampshire	613	320	293	
Vest Virginia	404	134	270	
ou am	332	314	18	
faine	288	84	204	
Montana	234	95		
outh Dakota	125	74	139	
orth Dakota	66		51	
ermont	64	22 42	44	
anama Canal Zone	04		22	
dexico	3,563	0 7	200	
nknown	256	131	3,556 125	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Applicants of all ages.

Source: Legalization Application Processing System (LAPS) files through August 12, 1992.

Table 2B. Applications for Legalization by Country of Birth, IRCA Program, and Resolution

Place of Birth		Section 245A (Pre-1982)				Section 210 (SAW)			
	Total	Total	Granted	Pending	Denied	Total	Granted	Pending	Denied
Total <sup>a</sup>	3,040,948	1,763,434	1,557,545	105,511	100,378	1,277,514	1,076,560	18,370	182,584
North America	2,277,336	1,236,919	1,098,053	70,262	68,604	1,040,417	876,836	13,586	149,995
Canada	7,465	7,309	6,021	853	435	156	137	4	15
Mexico	2,269,785	1,229,543	1,091,986	69,399	68,158	1,040,242	876,680	13,582	149,980
Other N. America	86	67	46	10	11	19	19	0	0
Central America	288,116	237,270	212,082	12,960	12,228	50,846	42,677	774	7,395
Belize	6,238	6,108	5,074	646	388	130	110	1	19
El Salvador	169,173	143,867	129,430	7,176	7,261	25,306	21,497	344	3,465
Guatemala	71,521	52,881	47,424	2,841	2,616	18,640	15,277	289	3,074
Honduras	18,360	13,234	11,422	829	983	5,126	4,394	92	640
Nicaragua	16,814	16,052	14,512	951	589	762	649	24	89
Other C. America	6,010	5,128	4,220	517	391	882	750	24	108
Caribbean	124,812	60,946	49,554	6,535	4,857	63,841	59,519	1,665	2,657
Dominican Republic	28,507	18,497	14,897	1.989	1,611	10,010	8,562	400	1,048
Haiti	60,154	16,056	13,480	1,577	999	44,098	42,344	935	819
Jamaica	19,739	13,459	10,981	1,278	1,200	6,280	5,535	238	507
Trinidad & Tobago	5,440	3,105	2,502	322	281	2,335	2,069	60	206
Other Caribbean	10,972	9,829	7,694	1,369	766	1,118	1,009	32	77
South America	104,260	74,121	64,849	4,721	4,551	30,139	26,133	570	3,436
Argentina	5,941	5,071	4,484	349	238	870	726	13	131
Brazil	7,792	1,752	1,417	142	193	6,040	5,400	114	526
Colombia	35,069	26,541	22,890	1,792	1,859	8,528	7,381	170	977
Ecuador	16,419	13,280	11,915	634	731	3,139	2,659	73	407
Peru	19,854	12,707	11,335	699	673	7,147	6,160	134	853
Other S. America	19,185	14,770	12,808	1,105	857	4,415	3,807	66	542
Asia	152,483	82,467	72,003	5,561	4,903	70,016	54,589	1,373	14,054
Bangladesh	8,087	1,342	1,173	57	112	6,745	4,844	103	1,798
China, Mainland	11,339	9,100	8,041	680	379	2,239	1,294	29	916
India	24,027	5,287	4,707	250	330	18,740	15,883	239	2,618
Iran	15,281	14,618	12,430	1,242	946	663	541	23	99
Korea	11,583	5,873	5,094	453	326	5,710	4,911	183	616
Pakistan	21,859	4,824	4,221	214	389	17,035	12,701	257	4,077
Philippines	29,797	19,390	17,460	1,001	929	10,407	8,625	286	1,496
Other Asia	30,510	22,033	18,877	1,664	1,492	8,477	5,790	253	2,434
Africa	46,154	32,287	27,383	1.968	2,936	13,867	10,992	267	2,608
Egypt	5,136	1,714	1,508	91	115	3,422	2,052	55	1,315
Ghana	7,196	5,389	4,874	257	258	1,807	1,622	22	163
Nigeria	16,246	11,414	9,876	572	966	4,832	4,342	101	389
Other Africa	17,576	13,770	11,125	1,048	1,597	3,806	2,976	89	741
Europe	40,139	35,112	30,364	2,798	1,950	5,027	3,781	79	1,167
Poland	17,590	17,025	15,459	948	618	565	436	5	124
United Kingdom	5,631	5,313	4,408	578	327	318	275	4	39
Other Europe	16,918	12,774	10,497	1,272	1,005	4,144	3,070	70	1,004
Oceania	7,434	4,188	3,231	672	285	3,246	1,970	52	1,224
Stateless	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
Unknown	237	122	26	32	64	115	63	4	48

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Applicants of all ages.

Source: Legalization Application Processing System (LAPS) files through August 12, 1992.

Table 3A. Region of Origin: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1992

			Region	of Origin (	percent)			Median
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Mexico	Central America	Other Western Hemisphere	Canada and Other	Median Year of Entry	Age in 1992
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> (number in '000s)	1,295	893	189	93	119	1979	36
	Percent	100	69	15	7	9	1979	36
Sex	Male	100	70	13	7	10	1979	36
	Female	100	68	17	7	8	1979	37
Period of	Before 1975	100	81	7	6	6	1972	42
Arrival	1975-1979	100	73	12	5	10	1978	36
	1980 or later	100	58	22	10	10	1981	33
Age at	17 or less	100	84	9	4	3	1979	28
Arrival	18 or more	100	62	17	9	12	1979	39
Years of	6 or less	100	84	12	3	1	1979	38
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	71	18	7	4	1979	34
	12 or more	100	42	16	15	27	1979	36
Able to	Not at all	100	87	10	2	1	1979	40
Speak English	Not very well	100	74	17	6	3	1979	36
	Very well, well	100	52	16	11	21	1979	35
Place of	California	100	77	16	1	6	1979	36
Residence	Texas	100	80	13	2	5	1980	35
	New York	100	13	15	48	24	1980	39
	Other	100	61	11	12	16	1979	37
Labor	Employed	100	68	15	7	10	1979	36
Force Status	Unemployed	100	72	14	7	7	1978	37
	Not in L.F.	100	74	13	6	7	1979	37
Age in	21-29	100	81	11	5	3	1980	26
1992	30–39	100	70	15	6	9	1979	34
	40 or more	100	61	16	10	13	1977	46
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	70	16	8	6	1979	38
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	75	15	5	5	1979	36
	\$20,000-29,999	100	71	14	7	8	1979	36
	\$30,000 or more	100	62	13	8	17	1979	36

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Table 3B. Characteristics of Legalized Adults by Region of Origin, 1992

		To	tal		Region of	Origin (percent	)
Variable  Characteristic  Total  Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> Sex  Male  Female  Period of Before 1975 1975–1979 1980 or later  Age at Arrival  17 or less 18 or more  Years of 6 or less Schooling Completed  7 to 11 12 or more  Able to Speak  Not at all	Number ir '000s	Percent	Mexico	Central America	Other Western Hemisphere	Other Including Canada	
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup>	1,295	100	100	100	100	100
Sex	Male	724	56	57	50	54	62
	Female	570	44	43	50	46	38
	Before 1975	285	22	26	10	17	15
Arrival	1975-1979	497	39	41	31	26	45
	1980 or later	506	39	33	59	57	40
Age at Arrival	17 or less	394	31	37	18	16	11
	18 or more	893	69	63	82	84	89
	6 or less	597	46	57	37	17	4
	7 to 11	328	25	26	32	24	12
•	12 or more	369	29	17	31	59	84
	Not at all	283	22	28	15	8	2
English	Not very well	541	42	45	47	37	14
	Very well, well	467	36	27	38	55	84
Place of	California	750	58	64	65	10	36
Residence	Texas	166	13	15	11	4	7
	New York	94	7	2	8	49	19
	Other	284	22	19	16	37	38
Labor Force	Employed	969	75	73	77	77	82
Status in 1992	Unemployed	83	6	7	6	7	5
	Not in Labor Force	241	19	20	17	16	13
Age in 1992	21-29	286	22	26	17	15	8
	30-39	581	45	45	47	38	44
	40 or more	421	33	29	36	47	48
Family Income	\$11,999 or less	256	22	22	23	25	14
in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	314	27	29	28	19	15
	\$20,000-29,999	298	25	26	25	24	22
	\$30,000 or more	309	26	23	24	32	49

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Table 3C. English Proficiency: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1992

	~	A	ble to Speak I	English (perce	nt)			g Skills Li ties (percer	
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Very Well, Well	Not Very Well	Not at All	Total	Not at All	Some- what	A Grea Deal
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> (number in '000s)	1,295	467	541	283	1,295	474	448	362
	Percent	100	36	42	22	100	37	35	28
Sex	Male	100	40	44	16	100	40	37	23
	Female	100	32	39	29	100	33	32	35
Region of	Mexico	100	27	45	28	100	32	37	31
Origin	Central America	100	38	47	15	100	34	38	28
	Other	100	72	24	4	100	58	26	16
Period of	Before 1975	100	37	38	25	100	42	34	24
Arrival	1975-1979	100	39	40	21	100	39	35	26
	1980 or later	100	33	46	21	100	32	36	32
Age at	17 or less	100	50	35	15	100	45	33	22
Arrival	18 or more	100	30	45	25	100	33	36	31
Years of	6 or less	100	12	51	37	100	25	37	38
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	38	48	14	100	35	40	25
Completed	12 or more	100	74	21	5	100	57	27	16
Able to	Not at all	100	/9	_	100	100	22	27	51
Speak English	Not very well	100	_	100	_	100	20	48	32
Lugusu	Very well, well	100	100	_	_	100	65	25	10
Place of	California	100	34	42	24	100	37	36	27
Residence	Texas	100	28	46	26	100	29	31	40
	New York	100	49	40	11	100	46	27	27
	Other	100	42	39	19	100	38	38	24
Labor Force	Employed	100	39	43	18	100	39	36	25
Status in 1992	Unemployed	100	34	42	24	100	33	34	33
1992	Not in L.F.	100	24	39	37	100	32	30	38
Age in 1992	21-29	100	53	34	13	100	46	33	21
	30-39	100	36	45	19	100	35	38	27
	40 or more	100	25	43	32	100	34	32	34
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	22	46	32	100	27	35	38
Income in	\$12,000-19,999	100	27	48	25	100	32	36	52
1991	\$20,000-29,999	100	38	43	19	100	37	37	26
	\$30,000 or more	100	56	33	11	100	49	33	18

<sup>-</sup> Not applicable.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Table 3D. Characteristics of English-Proficient and English-Limited Logalized Adults, 1992

Variable	Characteristic	Speak Only English at	Total	Able to Spea	k English	(percent)	Engli Limitin	sh Ability S g Job Oppo (percent)	icen es ortunities
		Home (percent)		Very Well, Well	Not Well	Not at All	Not at All	Some- what	A Grea Deal
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> (number in '000s)	50	1,295	467	541	283	474	448	362
	Percent	4	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sex	Male	4	56	61	59	41	60	60	46
	Female	4	44	39	41	59	40	40	54
Region of	Mexico	1	69	52	74	87	60	72	76
Origin	Central America	4	15	16	17	10	14	16	15
	Other	17	16	32	9	3	26	12	9
Period of	Before 1975	5	22	22	20	26	25	22	19
Arrival	1975-1979	3	39	42	37	37	40	38	36
	1980 or later	4	39	36	43	37	35	40	45
Age at	17 or less	3	31	42	25	22	38	29	23
Arrival	18 or more	4	69	58	75	78	62	71	77
Years of	6 or less	1	46	15	57	77	32	49	61
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	3	25	26	29	17	24	29	23
Complete	12 or more	9	29	59	14	6	44	22	16
Able to	Not at all	0	22	-	-	100	13	17	40
Speak English	Not very well	0	42		100	-	23	57	47
Calgara	Very well, well	11	36	100	-	-	64	26	13
Place of	California	2	58	55	58	62	59	59	56
Residence	Техаз	1	13	10	14	15	10	11	18
	New York	15	7	10	7	4	9	6	7
	Other	6	22	25	21	19	22	24	19
Labor	Employed	4	75	82	76	61	78	78	67
Force Status	Unemployed	4	6	6	7	7	6	6	8
in 1992	Not in L.F.	3	19	12	17	32	16	16	25
As in	21-29	3	22	32	18	13	28	21	17
A) e in 19.2	30-39	3	45	45	49	39	42	49	44
	40 or more	5	33	23	33	48	30	30	39
Family	\$11,999 or less	3	22	13	23	33	16	22	29
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	3	27	20	30	31	23	27	30
1991	\$20,000-29,999	3	25	27	26	22	26	27	24
	\$30,000 or more	5	26	40	21	14	35	24	17

<sup>-</sup> Not applicable.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding. Source: Legalized Population Follow-up Survey (LPS2).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Table 3B. Educational Profile: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1992

		V	ad Cab			Pero	cent of Adults Who Have Attended			
Variable	Chamataniatia	100		ooling Com ercent)	pleted		Since A	pplication for Residence	Temporary	
Variable	Characteristic	Total	0 to 6	7 to 11	12 or more	Some School in U.S.	Formal School Toward Degree	Vocational, Trade, or Business School	More than 40 Hours English Classes	
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> (number in '000s)	1,295	597	328	369	284	153	200	407	
11-	Porcont	100	46	25	29	22	12	16	32	
Sex	Male	100	45	25	30	23	12	17	31	
	Female	100	48	26	27	21	12	14	32	
Region of	Mexico	100	57	26	17	19	10	13	32	
Origin	Central America	100	37	32	31	21	14	19	40	
	Other	100	10	17	73	35	19	22	23	
Period of Arrival	Before 1975	100	56	20	24	23	11	13	25	
VIIIAN	1975-1979	100	.47	24	29	25	12	17	29	
	1980 or later	100	40	29	31	19	12	16	38	
Age at Arrival	17 or less	100	35	34	31	43	20	21	33	
AITIVE	18 or more	100	51	22	27	13	8	13	31	
Able to Speak	Not at all	100	77	17	6	4	2	6	25	
English	Not very well	100	57	29	14	8	5	9	36	
	Very well, well	100	15	26	59	49	26	28	30	
Place of Residence	California	100	47	27	26	24	12	15	33	
Kesinonce	Texas	100	57	24	19	16	10	10	28	
	New York	100	26	24	50	22	13	22	27	
	Other	100	43	22	35	21	12	17	31	
Labor	Employed	100	44	25	31	23	12	16	32	
Rorce Status in	Unemployed	100	49	30	21	21	10	"19	28	
1992	Not in Labor Force	100	55	24	21	17	11	10	29	
Age in	21-29	100	28	37	35	46	24	22	36	
1992	30-39	100	46	26	28	19	10	16	32	
	40 or more	100	60	16	24	10	6	11	28	
emily .	\$11,999 or less	100	56	26	18	15	8	12	31	
nocume in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	53	28	19	17	9	13	33	
	\$20,000-29,999	100	45	27	28	23	13	15	33	
	\$30,000 or more	100	31	21	48	33	18	23	31	

<sup>\*</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Table 4A. Labor Force Participation Rates: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1987/88 and 1992

			1	abor Force Pa	rticipation Rate		
Variable	Characteristic	To	otal	М	ale	Fen	nale
		1987	1992	1987	1992	1987	1992
Total	U.S. Residents <sup>a</sup> Legalized Adults <sup>b</sup>	76 85	79 81	85 96	94	66 70	70 66
Decise of	Mexico	83	80	96	93	65	62
Region of Origin	Central America	89	83	98	93	80	73
	Other	88	86	94	94	81	73
Period of	Before 1975	85	80	96	91	71	65
Arrival	1975-1979	83	82	95	94	68	67
	1980 or later	86	81	97	95	72	65
Age at	17 or less	80	81	91	93	65	64
Arrival	18 or more	87	82	98	94	72	67
Years of	6 or less	84	78	98	93	67	59
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	86	83	97	92	72	70
	12 or more	84	86	92	95	74	73
Able to	Not at all	79	68	97	91	67	53
Speak English	Not very well	87	83	98	94	71	67
	Very well, well	85	88	93	95	73	77
Place of	California	84	79	95	93	70	63
Residence	Texas	84	84	96	95	69	69
	New York	91	86	98	95	80	73
	Other	84	84	96	94	67	69
Age	21-29	78	82	88	94	65	65
	30-39	86	83	98	95	69	67
	40 or more	87	79	98	90	75	65
Family	\$11,999 or less	84	74	97	90	73	61
Income Previous	\$12,000-19,999	86	82	97	94	71	66
Year	\$20,000-29,999	86	84	97	95	68	67
	\$30,000 or more	85	88	94	96	71	75

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>The 1987 base is U.S. residents ages 16 to 64; the 1992 base is U.S. residents ages 20 to 64. <sup>b</sup>Base for both years is section 245A beneficiaries who were ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Sources: Legalized adults (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. prime-age adults (BLS, Employment and Earnings, January 1988 and January 1993. Annual averages).

Table 4B. Proportions Employed and Economically Inactive: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1987/88 and 1992

			1	Percent I	Employe	d			Perce	nt Not i	n Labor	Force	
Variable	Characteristic	To	tal	М	alc	Fer	nale	To	otal	М	ale	Fer	nale
		1987	1992	1987	1992	1987	1992	1987	1992	1987	1992	Fen 1987 34 30 35 20 19 29 32 28 35 28 36 33 29 27 30 31 20 33 35 27 29 31 20 32 27 30 31 20 31 20 31 20 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31 31	1992
Total	U.S. Residents <sup>a</sup>	71	74	80	82	62	66	24	21	15	12	34	30
	Legalized Adults <sup>b</sup>	81	75	94	86	64	61	15	19	4	6	30	34
Region of	Mexico	79	73	94	85	59	58	17	20	4	7	35	38
Origin	Central America	85	77	96	87	75	66	11	17	2	7	20	27
	Other	85	80	92	88	76	68	12	14	6	6	19	27
Period of	Before 1975	83	71	95	82	67	57	15	20	4	9	29	35
Arrival	1975-1979	78	76	92	86	62	64	17	18	5	6	32	33
	1980 or later	82	76	95	89	66	60	14	19	3	5	28	35
Age at	17 or less	74	74	86	85	58	59	20	19	9	7	35	36
Arrival in U.S.	18 or more	84	75	97	86	67	62	13	18	2	6	28	33
Years of	6 or less	81	71	97	85	62	54	16	22	2	7	33	41
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	81	75	92	83	66	65	14	17	3	8	28	30
	12 or more	81	81	89	90	68	69	16	14	8	5	26	27
Able to	Not at all	74	61	95	81	59	48	21	32	3	9	33	47
Speak English	Not very well	85	76	97	86	67	62	13	17	2	6	29	33
	Very well, well	81	82	90	88	67	72	15	12	7	5	27	23
Place of	California	80	72	93	84	64	59	16	21	5	7	30	37
Residence	Texas	80	78	92	86	64	67	16	16	4	5	31	31
	New York	87	80	97	89	72	64	9	14	2	5	20	27
	Other	81	78	94	89	63	63	16	16	4	6	33	31
Age	21-29	72	76	84	87	56	60	22	18	12	6	35	35
	30-39	83	77	97	88	64	62	14	17	2	5	31	33
	40 or more	84	71	96	82	70	59	13	21	2	10	25	35
Family	\$11,999 or less	80	63	94	74	68	53	16	26	3	10	27	39
Income Previous	\$12,000-19,999	82	76	95	87	64	61	14	18	3	6	29	34
Year	\$20,000-29,999	83	79	95	89	63	62	14	16	3	5	32	33
	\$30,000 or more	82	84	92	91	66	72	15	12	6	4	29	25

The 1987 base is U.S. civilians ages 16 to 64; the 1992 base is U.S. civilians ages 20 to 64. The base for both years is legalized aliens who were ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Residual (not shown) is percent of persons with the given set of characteristics who were unemployed.

Sources: Legalized adults (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. residents (BLS, Employment and Earnings, January 1988 and January 1993. Annual averages).

Table 4C. Work Schedules: Legalized Workers by Various Characteristics, 1992

Variable	Characteristic		rs of Work I yed Persons,		Percent 40 Hou	Working Months per Week	re Than 1992
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	Legalized Workers	40	42	37	24	30	14
Region of	Mexico	40	42	37	23	29	12
Origin	Central America	39	41	37	20	22	16
	Other	42	44	38	30	37	18
Period of	Before 1975	40	41	37	24	30	12
Arrival	1975-1979	41	43	37	25	30	15
	1980 or later	41	42	37	24	29	14
Age at	17 or less	41	42	37	23	29	13
Arrival	18 or more	40	42	37	24	30	14
Years of	6 or less	40	41	37	21	27	10
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	41	43	37	25	31	14
•	12 or more	41	43	38	28	32	19
Able to	Not at all	40	41	37	20	26	13
Speak English	Not very well	40	42	37	23	28	12
	Very well, well	41	43	37	27	33	16
Place of	California	40	42	37	22	27	15
Residence	Texas	40	42	37	23	30	11
	New York	42	44	38	35	43	19
	Other	41	43	37	25	31	11
Age in 1992	21-29	40	42	38	23	27	15
	30-39	41	43	37	25	32	13
	40 or more	40	41	37	23	27	15
Family	\$11,999 or less	38	39	36	15	18	12
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	40	41	37	22	26	13
	\$20,000-29,999	41	42	37	25	31	11
	\$30,000 or more	43	44	39	32	38	20

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Table 4D. Major Industry of	Employment:	Legalized	Workers by	Various	Characteristics,	1992
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						Indu	stry (percent)					
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Agricultural	Construction	Manuf	acturing	Wholesale, Trad	, Rotail	Services			Other
		I Out	Vâlicamia	Construction	Durable	Non- durable	Restaurant	Other	Business	Private Household	Other	
Total	U.S. Werkers	100	3	•	10	7	5	16	6	1	28	19
	Legalized Workers	100	5		12	13	10	16	7	•	15	
Sex	Male	100	7	13	13	11	12	16	8	1	10	9
	Female	100	2	1	8	17	8	15	5	14	23	,
Region of Origin	Mexico	100	7	10	13	14	11	16	6	5	13	5
Oign	Ceutral America	100	2	6	9	11	9	13	10	13	18	9
	Other	100	1	5	6	8	10	18	8	5	22	17
Period of Arrival	Before 1975	100	7	8	12	12	8	19	10	5	12	7
WIINE	1975-1979	100	5	8	11	15	9	15	6	6	15	10
11-	1980 or later	100	3	9	11	11	13	15	7	7	17	7
Age at Arrival	17 or less	100	4	11	13	11	12	18	7	3	14	7
Alivu	18 or more	100	5	7	11	14	10	15	7	7	16	
Years of	6 or less	100	8	10	12	15	12	14	6		11	4
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	5	8	13	14	11	17	6		14	
	12 or more	100	1	6	9	9		18			22	15

Table 4D, continued

						Indu	stry (percent)					
					Manufa	ecturing	Wholesale, Trade			Services		Other
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Agricultural	Construction	Durable	Non- durable	Restaurant	Other	Business	Private Household	Other	
Able to	Not at all	100	11	6	12	21	11	13	4	7	11	4
Speak English	Not very well	100	6	11	13	14	12	15	5	7	12	5
	Very well, well	100	2	6	10	8	9	18	9	5	20	13
Place of	California	100	6	7	13	14	8	17	7	6	14	8
Residence	Texas	100	5	15	11	9	11	13	6	8	16	6
	New York	100	-	3	6	13	16	16	7	8	16	15
	Other	100	5	9	11	12	13	14	7	4	17	8
Age in 1992	21-29	100	4	10	13	10	12	18	7	3	16	7
1992	30-39	100	5	8	12	15	10	15	7	5	14	9
	40 or more	100	6	7	10	12	9	16	6	9	17	8
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	7	9	7	13	13	15	6	13	12	5
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	8	8	11	15	9	14	6	6	17	6
	\$20,000-29,999	100	4	9	13	11	12	18	6	4	15	8
	\$30,000 or more	100	3	9	13	12	7	16	9	3	16	12

<sup>-</sup> Less than 0.5 percent.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. workforce (BLS, Employment and Earnings, January 1993. Annual averages).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Includes mining; transportation, communication and public utilities; finance, insurance and real estate; and public administration.

						Occupat	ion (perce	nt)				
Variable	Characteristic		Professional,		Administrative	S	ervices					
		Total	Technical, Managerial	Sales	Support	Private Household	Food	Other	Farm	Craft and Repair	Operator, Transport  10 24 25 21 26 20 15 25 21 22 24	Labor
Total	U.S. Workers	100	30	12	16	1	5		3	11	10	4
-10-	Legalized Workers	100		5	7	5	10	11	6	15		
Sex	Male	100	8	4	5	-	12	8	8	20		10
	Female	100	8	7	11	14	7	17	2	5		8
Region of Origin	Mexico	100	5	4	6	4	11	10	7	16		11
	Central America	100	8	6	8	13	10	15	2	13		
	Other	100	22	10	12	4	9	12	1	11		
Period of Arrival	Before 1975	100	6	5	9	5	9	11	7	14		9
	1975–1979	100	10	5	7	5	9	10	6	15		
	1980 or later	100	7	6	6	6	13	12		15		10
Age at Arrival	17 or less	100	8	7	11	3	11	8	5	15		10
All Marie	18 or more	100		5	5	6	10	13	6	14		
fees of	6 or less	100	2	3	2	7	13	11	0	16	27	10
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	6	5	6	5	10	12		16		10
	12 or more	100	19	9	15	1	7	11	•	11	26 16	9

Table 4E, continued

						Occupati	on (perce	nt)				
Variable	Characteristic		Professional,		A 4	S	ervices			CA1	0	
		Total	Technical, Managerial	Sales	Administrative Support	Private Household	Food	Other	Farm	Craft and Repair	Operator, Transport	Labor
Able to	Not at all	100	1	3	2	7	10	10	11	13	33	10
Speak English	Not very well	100	3	3	3	6	13	12	7	16	26	11
	Very well, well	100	16	9	14	4	8	11	2	14	16	6
Place of	California	100	7	5	8	5	8	11	6	15	27	8
Residence	Texas	100	5	6	4	8	13	12	5	18	16	13
	New York	100	12	6	7	7	15	15	1	9	23	5
	Other	100	10	5	5	3	14	11	6	15	20	11
Age in 1992	21-29	100	9	7	11	3	10	9	6	14	21	10
	30-39	100	8	5	6	4	10	11	6	15	25	10
	40 or more	100	8	4	6	9	10	13	6	14	23	7
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	3	6	4	13	12	12	8	11	21	10
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	4	4	7	4	11	12	8	14	26	10
	\$20,000-29,999	100	7	4	6	4	12	12	5	17	24	9
	\$30,000 or more	100	15	6	10	2	7	10	3	16	24	7

- Less than 0.5 percent.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, January 1993. Annual averages).

Table 4F. Class of Work: Legalized Workers by Various Characteristics, 1992

		Employed	Persons by Class	of Work, 1992 (	percent)
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Wage or Salary	Government Employee	Self- Employed
Total	U.S. Workers	100	75	16	9
	Legalized Workers	100	88	•	
Sex	Male	100	88	3	9
	Female	100	88	5	7
Region of Origin	Mexico	100	91	3	6
	Central America	100	88	4	8
	Other	100	76	7	17
Period of Arrival	Before 1975	100	87	3	10
	1975-1979	100	88	4	8
	1980 or later	100	89	4	7
Age at Arrival	17 or less	100	91	4	5
	18 or more	100	87	3	10
Years of Schooling	6 or less	100	92	2	6
Completed	7 to 11	100	91	2	7
	12 or more	100	80	7	13
Able to Speak English	Not at all	100	94	2	4
	Not very well	100	91	2	7
	Very well, well	100	82	6	12
Place of Residence	California	100	88	4	8
	Texas	100	90	2	8
	New York	100	83	8	9
	Other	100	89	3	8
Age in 1992	21-29	100	91	4	5
1992	30-39	100	89	3	8
	40 or older	100	85	4	11
Family Income in 1991	\$11,999 or less	100	87	4	9
	\$12,000-19,999	100	89	3	8
	\$20,000-29,999	100	91	3	6
	\$30,000 or more	100	85	5	10

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Includes unpaid family workers, who account for no more than 1 percent of total.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. workforce (BLS, Employment and Earnings, January 1993. Annual averages).

Table 4G. Employment Benefits Received: Legalized Wage and Salary Workers by Various Characteristics, 1992

		Percent of		Percent	of Wage an	d Salary Wo	rkers	
Variable	Characteristic	Population With Wage			Receiving	Paid		Payroll
		and Salary Jobs	Union Members	Health Insurance <sup>a</sup>	Vacation	Holidays	Sick Leave	Deductions for Pension
Total	Legalized Workers (number in '900s)	884	127	431	607	565	300	213
	Porcont	68	15	49	70	65	45	26
Sex	Male	78	15	55	72	67	46	29
	Female	56	13	39	68	63	44	22
Region of	Мехісо	68	14	47	70	64	40	26
Origin	Central America	71	13	46	68	66	48	23
	Other	66	21	57	74	71	63	31
Period of	Before 1975	63	15	52	70	68	47	29
Arrival	1975-1979	69	15	49	71	65	45	28
	1980 or later	70	14	47	70	65	44	23
Age at	17 or less	70	13	48	72	65	44	27
Arrival	18 or more	68	15	49	70	65	46	26
Years of	6 or less	66	13	41	63	57	34	23
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	69	14	48	73	69	46	26
	12 or more	71	18	61	79	75	61	31
Able to	Not at all	58	14	39	62	57	30	22
Speak English	Not very well	71	15	45	68	62	40	23
	Very well, well	72	15	58	77	73	58	32
Place of	California	66	14	51	70	66	45	28
Residence	Texas	71	2	40	67	56	37	14
	New York	72	30	47	64	64	57	28
	Other	72	18	49	75	69	46	28
Age in 1992	21-29	72	11	48	72	66	44	26
	30-39	70	15	50	71	66	45	26
	40 or more	63	17	48	68	65	46	28
Family	\$11,999 or less	56	8	22	49	44	26	13
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	69	14	45	67	62	39	24
	\$20,000-29,999	74	16	55	76	71	48	29
	\$30,000 or more	76	17	65	82	77	60	35

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Employer paid all or part of premium.

Table 4H. Earnings of Legalized Workers by Various Characteristics: First U.S. Job, at Application, and 1992

	Comment of	Ma (con	en Hourly Wag estant 1992 dolla	o ars)	Individual Earnings	Family Earnings
Variable	Characteristic	First U.S. Job	At Application <sup>a</sup>	In 1992	1991 (median)	1991 (median)
Total	U.S. Workers <sup>b</sup>	-	\$8.98	\$10.33	\$17,146	\$35,939
	Legalized Workers	\$7.59	\$7.57	\$ 8.71	\$12,670	\$20,147
Sex	Male	8.20	8.33	9.43	15,198	21,968
	Female	6.67	6.15	7.41	8,748	17,507
Region of	Mexico	7.51	7.14	8.11	12,091	19,112
Origin	Central America	6.53	7.30	8.42	11,869	19,471
	Other	8.99	9.64	11.46	17,982	26,804
Period of	Before 1975	9.98	8.37	9.06	12,608	19,878
Arrival	1975-1979	7.91	7.83	8.82	13,170	20,927
	1980 or later	5.91	6.88	8.42	12,257	19,560
Age at	17 or less	7.99	7.10	8.34	12,523	21,214
Arrival	18 or more	7.42	7.76	7.88	12,748	19,652
Years of	6 or less	7.03	6.91	7.56	10,963	17,187
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	7.48	7.29	8.09	12,470	19,260
	12 or more	8.64	8.93	10.92	16,903	27,041
Able to Speak	Not at all	6.96	6.08	6.65	9,168	15,137
English	Not very well	6.99	7.22	8.11	11,943	18,761
	Very well, well	8.71	8.87	10.33	16,119	25,352
Place of	California	7.72	7.67	9.02	12,597	20,498
Residence	Texas	6.63	6.34	7.17	11,019	16,396
	New York	7.59	8.38	9.13	14,778	20,976
	Other	7.83	7.75	8.68	13,211	21,100
Age	20–29	7.11	6.50	8.34	11,967	21,129
	30-39	7.35	7.83	8.91	13,430	20,378
	40 or more	8.28	7.85	8.68	11,961	18,700
Family	\$11,999 or less	6.85	6.04	6.10	6,444	8,104
Income Previous Year	\$12,000-19,999	7.23	6.80	7.42	12,511	15,665
	\$20,000-29,999	7.73	7.58	8.67	14,834	24,083
	\$30,000 or more	8.52	9.80	11.93	21,651	40,159

<sup>-</sup> Not applicable.

Sources: Legalized workforce (Legalized Population Survey [LPS1] restricted sample and Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. wage data (BLS, Employment and Earnings, January 1993. Annual average); U.S. earnings data (BLS, unpublished data from the Current Population Survey, March 1992).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>U.S. workers, annual average, 1987; Legalized workers' wages during week prior to application in either 1987 or 1988. Earnings of U.S. production or nonsupervisory workers on private nonfarm payrolls.

Table 4I. Method of Payment and Payroll Deductions: Legalized Workers by Various Characteristics, 1992

		Method		for Wage an (percent)	d Salary	Percent of Wage Workers Having Pay for	and Salary Proll Deductions
Variable	Characteristic	Total	Cash Only	Check Only	Partially in Cash	Federal, State Income Tax <sup>a</sup>	Social Security <sup>a</sup>
Total	Legalized Workers (number in '900s)	882	58	746	44	795	789
	Percent	100	7	88	5	90	90
Sex	Male	100	5	90	5	93	92
	Female	100	9	86	5	87	87
Region of	Mexico	100	5	90	5	92	92
Origin	Central America	100	11	83	6	85	85
	Other	100	11	85	4	90	89
Period of	Before 1975	100	5	89	6	91	93
Arrival	1975-1979	100	6	90	4	90	89
	1980 or later	100	8	87	5	90	90
Age at	17 or less	100	5	91	4	93	93
Arrival	18 or more	100	8	87	5	89	89
Years of	6 or less	100	8	87	5	88	89
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	5	90	5	92	91
•	12 or more	100	6	90	4	93	92
Able to	Not at all	100	9	86	5	87	89
Speak English	Not very well	100	7	87	6	90	89
	Very well, well	100	5	91	4	93	92
Place of	California	100	5	90	5	90	90
Residence	Texas	100	7	91	2	89	90
	New York	100	22	74	4	86	85
	Other	100	5	88	7	93	93
Age in	21-29	100	5	91	4	94	93
1992	30-39	100	6	89	5	91	91
	40 or more	100	8	86	6	87	88
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	14	79	7	80	80
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	7	87	6	90	90
	\$20,000-29,999	100	4	91	5	94	94
	\$30,000 or more	100	3	94	3	94	94

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Base is all legalized workers with the given characteristic.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

				Perceived	Effect of L	ogal Statu	s on Ability	to	
Variable	Characteristic		Get Work	(percent)a		*	dvance at V	Work (perce	nt)b
		Total	Easier	No Effect	Harder	Total	Easier	No Effect	Harde
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>C</sup> (number in '000e)	676	526	128	22	1179	744	419	16
	Percent	100	78	19	3	100	63	36	1
Sea	Male	100	77	19	4	100	64	34	2
	Female	100	78	19	3	100	62	37	1
Region of	Mexico	100	79	18	3	100	65	34	1
Origin	Central America	100	74	22	4	100	61	37	2
	Other	100	75	22	3	100	57	42	1
Period of	Before 1975	100	72	23	5	100	60	38	2
Arrival	1975-1979	100	77	20	3	100	61	38	1
	1980 or later	100	81	16	3	100	67	32	1
Age at	17 or less	100	80	18	2	100	64	35	1
Arrival in U.S.	18 or more	100	76	20	4	100	63	36	1
Years of	6 or less	100	77	18	5	100	65	33	2
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	79	18	3	100	67	32	1
	12 or more	100	77	21	2	100	56	43	1
Able to	Not at all	100	75	19	6	100	63	35	2
Speak English	Not very well	100	80	17	3	100	66	32	2
	Very well, well	100	77	21	2	100	60	39	1
Place of	California	100	75	21	4	100	60	38	2
Residence in 1992	Texas	100	87	11	2	100	72	27	1
	New York	100	74	22	4	100	66	33	1
	Other	100	81	17	2	100	64	35	1
Age in 1992	21-29	100	81	17	2	100	64	36	0
1992	30-39	100	79	18	3	100	64	34	2
	40 or more	100	73	22	5	100	61	37	2
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	75	20	5	100	65	33	2
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	78	18	4	100	66	32	2
	\$20,000-29,999	100	82	16	2	100	63	36	1
	\$30,000 and over	100	79	19	2	100	61	38	1

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Base is all persons who attempted to find work after legalization.

Base is all persons working in 1992.

Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Table 5A. Expectations Regarding Naturalization and Retirement: Legalized Adults by Various Characteristics, 1992

	Expectations Regarding					Intent to				
Variable	Characteristic		Apply for I	J.S. Citizen	hip (perc			Retire by	Location (pe	rcent)
		Total	Definite Yes	Probable Yes	Don't Know	Probable No			In Home Country	Other or Don
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup> (number in '000s)	1,295	621	355	293	217	990	787	185	Know 18
	Percent	100	48	27	23	2	100	79		
Sex	Male	100	49	28	22	1	100	75	19	
	Female	100	47	27	24	2	100	85	23	2
Region o	f Mexico	100	43	30	25	2	100		14	_1_
Origin	Central America	100	53	26	19	2		80	19	1
	Other	100	65	17	16	2	100	73	24	3
Period of	Before 1975	100	50	27	22	1		82	15	3
Arrival	1975-1979	100	48	27	23		100	85	14	1
	1980 or later	100	48	29	22	1	100	79	19	2
Age at	17 or less	100	51	27	21	1	100	77	21	2
Arrival	18 or more	100	47	28	23	-	100	84	14	2
Years of	6 or less	100	38	31		2	100	77	21	2
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	49	30	29	2	100	78	21	1
•	12 or more	100	64	20	20	1	100	80	18	2
Able to	Not at all	100	30	33	15	1	100	81	16	3
Speak English	Not very well	100	43	32	34	3	100	79	20	1
	Very well, well	100	65	19	24	1	100	77	22	1
Place of	California	100	44		15	-	100	82	15	3
Residence	Texas	100	56	29	25	2	100	78	20	2
	New York	100	60	22	20	2	100	83	15	2
	All other	100	49	20	18	2	100	75	23	2
ge in	21-29	100	50	31	19	1	100	83	15	2
992	30-39	100	43	28	21	1	100	83	15	2
	40 or more	100	47	28 26	23	1	100	76	22	2
amily		100	46	29	24	3	100	81	17	2
ocome in		100	47	27	22	3	100	83	16	1
		100	45		25	1	100	80	19	1
	***	100	57		23		100	77	21	2
	ISA hanafinining		3,	23	19	1	100	79	19	2

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

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Table 5B. Naturalization Applications of Section 245A Beneficiaries by Country of Birth, November 1993 to May 1994

Place of Birth	Number Who Applied for Naturalization	Number Who Were Eligible to Apply	Percent of Those Eligible Who Applied
Total	17,939	232,770	7.7
North America	4,261	152,516	2.8
Canada	62	1,028	6.0
Mexico	4,199	151,481	2.8
Other N. America	0	7	0.0
Central America	2,486	31,106	8.0
Belize	63	518	12.2
El Salvador	1,413	20,159	7.0
Guatemala	342	5,844	5.9
Honduras	126	1,138	11.1
Nicaragua	466	2,896	16.1
Other C. America	76	551	13.8
Caribbean	1,048	7,318	14.3
Dominican Republic	75	592	12.7
Haiti	511	3,314	15.4
Jamaica	248	1,953	12.7
Trinidad & Tobago	54	315	17.1
Other Caribbean	160	1,144	14.0
South America	1,374	8,157	16.8
Argentina	115	627	18.3
Brazil	16	184	8.7
Colombia	461	2,593	17.8
Ecuador	127	1,296	9.8
Peru	264	1,332	19.8
Other S. America	391	2,125	18.4
Asia	6,568	22,106	29.7
Bangladesh	152	389	39.1
China, Mainland	1,136	3,632	31.3
India	553	2,209	25.0
Iran	477	2,479	19.2
Korea	221	1,353	16.3
Pakistan	407	1,333	33.7
Philippines Philippines	1,894	5,165	36.7
Other Asia	1,728	5,670	30.5
Africa	1,182	4,492	26.3
Egypt	242	515	47.0
Ghana			
Nigeria	149 350	1,264	20.6 27.7
Other Africa	441	1,991	22.1
Europe	985	6,760	14.6
Poland	556	3,865	14.4
United Kingdom	114	884	12.9
Other Europe	315	2,011	15.7
Oceania	35	315	11.1

Source: Unpublished data from the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

	Total		Immedi	ate Family		Total		Oth	er Specified	Relatives		Other
States Reported in LPS1 or LAPS	Household Members	Total	Respondent	Spouse or Partner	Children	Other	Total	Pareals	Siblings	Grand- parents	Grand- children	and Non- relatives
Living in Hospshold at Application <sup>6</sup>	4.70	2.87	1.00	0.51	1.36	1.83	0.99	0.21	0.71	0.01	0.06	0.04
Immigration Status at Application Pre-1982 or SAW Cities or LPk Possibly Hogal	3.86 <sup>b</sup> 2.62 <sup>b</sup> 1.13 <sup>b</sup> 0.71 <sup>b</sup>	2.87° 1.59° 0.59° 0.59°	1.00 1.00 0.00	0.51° e.28° e.09° e.14°	1.36° 0.31° 0.81° 0.24°	NA NA NA	0.98° 0.43° 0.23° 0.32°	NA NA NA	NA NA NA	NA NA NA	NA NA NA	NA NA NA NA

0.02° 0.16°

0.06

0.010

0.04°

0.27°

NA

NA

NA

NA NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

NA

0.05b

ion rejected

No INS record

Born after 1971

Born by 1971

\*Relationship reported by LPS2 respondents in LPS1 (restricted sample).

\*This total does not include "other relatives and nonrelatives", for whom no LPS1 information was available.

\*Count of persons in these categories was inferred through a direct match of LPS1 and LAPS records.

0.040

0.16

0.19<sup>c</sup>

Table SC. Household and Family Composition by Immigration Status at Application: Legalized Alices, 1987/88

Note: Data pertain to relationships, immigration and co-resident status at time of phase I application. Some figures may not add to totals due to rounding.

0.01° 0.00°

0.13<sup>c</sup>

Sources: Legalized Population Survey (LPS1) and INS Legalization Application Processing System (LAPS) files.

0.00

0.00

Table 5D. Household and Family Composition by Immigration Status at Date of Second Survey: Legalized Aliens, 1992

	Total		Immedi	iate Family		Total		Other	Specified R	telatives		Other
Status Reported in LPS2	Household . Members	Total	Respon- dent	Spouse or Partner	Children	Other	Total	Parcols	Siblings	Grand- parents	Grand- children	and Non relative
Living in Hossehold,		Maria										
1992	4.48	3.36	1.00	0.63	1.73	1.12	0.55	0.12	0.35	0.00	9.06	0.57
and at application	3.06	2.64	1.00	0.47	1.17	0.42	0.29	0.08	0.18	0.00	0.03	0.13
not at application <sup>a</sup>	1.42.	0.72	0.00	0.16	0.56	0.70	0.26	0.04	0.17	0.00	0.05	0.44
Legal Status in 1992	2	17										
Total	4.48	3.36	1.00	0.63	1.73	1.12	0.55	0.12	0.35	0.00	0.08	0.57
Pre-1962 or SAW	1.79	1.54	1.00	0.31	0.23	0.25	0.16	0.04	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.00
Citizen or LPR	1.87	1.42	0.00	0.17	1.25	0.45	0.20	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.07	0.25
Citizen	1.59	1.27	0.00	0.07	1.20	0.32	0.12	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.06	0.20
LPR	0.28	0.15	0.00	0.10	0.05	0.13	0.08	0.03	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.04
Family Fairness	0.14	0.12	0.00	0.05	0.07	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Temporary visa	0.11	0.05	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.03
Possibly Bossib	0.57	0.23	0.00	0.08	0.15	0.34	0.13	0.02	0.11	0.00	0.00	0.21

Includes persons living elsewhere when respondent applied as well as those born since that date.

Individuals whose immigration status was not identified by the respondent in LPS2. LAPS data were not used in making this determination.

Note: Data pertain to relationships, immigration and co-resident status at time of the LPS2 interview. Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Table 6A. Family Income and Remittances: Legalization Families by Various Respondent Characteristics, 1992

			Percent o	f Families V	Vhose 1991	Income Wa		Mean Family	Families
Variable	Characteristic	Total	\$0 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 to \$29,999	\$30,000 or more	Remittance 1991 (dollars)	Who Remitted (percent
Total	U.S. Families	100	17	8		8	59	-	-
	Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup>	100	34	16	16	17	18	\$821	52
Sex	Male	100	26	17	17	20	20	1,080	50
	Female	100	43	14	14	14	15	525	44
Region of	Mexico	100	36	17	16	17	14	783	51
Origin	Central America	100	37	15	16	17	15	932	64
	Other	100	22	10	14	19	35	872	47
Period of	Before 1975	100	37	14	16	16	18	668	43
Arrival	1975-1979	100	31	16	16	18	19	720	50
	1980 or later	100	35	17	15	17	16	1,006	60
Age at	17 or less	100	29	17	16	19	19	845	46
Arrival in U.S.	18 or more	100	36	15	16	16	17	812	55
Years of	6 or less	100	42	18	16	14	10	792	56
Schooling Completed	7 to 11	100	34	18	16	18	14	878	51
	12 or more	100	20	11	15	21	33	813	48
Able to	Not at all	100	49	18	16	10	7	571	47
Speak English	Not very well	100	37	18	16	16	13	950	59
	Very well, well	100	22	12	15	22	29	821	49
Place of	California	100	32	17	15	18	18	760	51
Residence in 1992	Texas	100	45	16	15	16	8	776	50
	New York	100	35	10	24	13	18	912	57
	Other	100	32	15	16	15	22	970	54
Age in	21-29	100	29	17	15	18	19	836	48
1992	30-39	100	32	17	16	18	17	813	56
	40 or older	100	40	14	14	15	17	811	51
Family	\$11,999 or less	100	100	-	-	-	-	334	36
Income in 1991	\$12,000-19,999	100	42	58	-	-	-	660	53
	\$20,000-29,999	100	-	-	61	39	-	992	63
	\$30,000 or more	100	-	-	-	29	71	1,347	59

<sup>-</sup> Not applicable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some figures may not add to total due to rounding.

Sources: Legalized population (Legalized Population Follow-up Survey [LPS2]); U.S. population (Census, Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States, 1991, CPS Report P-60, No. 180).

Table 6B. Absence of Private Health Insurance Coverage: Legalized Adults and Legalization Families by Various Respondent Characteristics, At Application and in 1992

		Re	espondents Who H	lad	
Variable	Characteristic	No Individual Hea		No Family (percent)	
		At Application <sup>C</sup>	1992	1992	
Total	Legalized Adults <sup>d</sup>	50	52	40	
Sex	Male	45	47	36	
	Female	56	58	45	
Region of Origin	Mexico	51	54	43	
	Central America	56	55	44	
	Other	40	38	27	
Period of Arrival	Before 1975	45	51	37	
	1975-1979	48	51	40	
	1980 or later	55	53	42	
Age at Arrival	17 or less	50	52	42	
	18 or more	50	52	40	
Years of Schooling Completed	6 or less	56	60	47	
	7 to 11	52	53	43	
	12 or more	39	37	27	
Able to Speak	Not at all	59	66	51	
English	Not very well	53	54	44	
	Very well, well	41	40	30	
Place of	California	50	53	40	
Residence	Texas	57	59	50	
	New York	59	54	46	
	Other	44	44	33	
Labor Force	Employed	47	43	34	
Status	Unemployed	55	88	64	
	Not in Labor Force	63	75	55	
Age	20-29	53	54	42	
	30-39	48	49	41	
	40 or more	51	54	38	
Family Income	\$11,999 or less	72	80	71	
Previous Year	\$12,000-19,999	54	56	47	
	\$20,000-29,999	44	43	31	
	\$30,000 or more	32	29	15	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Base is all respondents with a given characteristic, irrespective of family status.

<sup>b</sup>Base is all respondents with a given characteristic who were living with at least one family member.

<sup>c</sup>In most cases, 1987 or 1988.

<sup>d</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

# APPENDIX B.

### GLOSSARY OF TERMS

ACF Administration for Children and Families, an agency of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

AFDC Aid to Families with Dependent Children, a Federal/State needs-based assistance program.

BLS

Bureau of Labor Statistics, a Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor.

DHHS U.S. Department of Health and Human Services

DOJ U.S. Department of Justice

DOL U.S. Department of Labor

ELA Eligible legalized alien, a term applied to IRCA-legalized individuals eligible for various services reimbursable under the State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant program.

EWI Entry without inspection.

FCS Food and Consumer Service, an agency of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

FSP Food Stamp Program, a Federal needs-based assistance program administered by the Food and Consumer Service.

ILAB

Bureau of International Labor Affairs, a Bureau of the U.S.

Department of Labor.

IMMACT90 Immigration Act of 1990.

INA Immigration and Nationality Act.

INS Immigration and Naturalization Service, an agency of the U.S. Department of Justice.

IRCA Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986.

LAPS Legalization Application Processing System.

LPR Lawful permanent resident status, often referred to as "green card" status.

LPS1 The first Legalized Population Survey, a 1989 national survey of 6,193 section 245A-legalized aliens conducted by Westat, Inc. of Rockville, MD on contract to the U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service.

LPS2 The Legalized Population Follow-up Survey, a 1992 national survey conducted by Westat, Inc. of Rockville, MD, on contract to the U.S. Department of Labor, cosponsored by the Departments of Agriculture and Commerce. This survey reinterviewed 4,012 persons who had participated in LPS1.

Other All countries other than Mexico and countries of Central America.

Phase I The first phase of pre-1982 legalization program, during which legalized aliens received temporary resident alien status and work authorization for 42 months while completing application for lawful permanent residence.

Phase II The second phase of the pre-1982 program, application for lawful permanent residence. To complete this phase, applicants had to demonstrate basic knowledge of the English language and U.S. civics, either through a test or by attending 40 hours of mandatory classroom training.

Pre-1982

A term applied to illegal aliens who applied for legalization through the program set forth in section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act. This program was only open to those who could demonstrate continuous unlawful residence in the United States from December 31, 1981, to the date of their application.

SAWs Special Agricultural Workers, persons who qualified for legalization under the program set forth in section 210 of the INA. This program was only open to illegal aliens who could demonstrate they had worked 90 days or more in U.S. agriculture during the year ending May 1, 1986.

SCIRP The Select Commission on Immigration and Refugee Policy, a Presidential commission whose recommendations formed the

basis for the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986.

Section 210 The section of the INA laying out terms of the Special Agricultural Worker legalization program.

Section 245A The section of the INA laying out terms of the pre-1982 legalization program.

SSI Supplemental Security Income

SLIAG The State Legalization Impact Assistance Grant program, established by Congress to reimburse impacted States for certain services available to legalized aliens during the transition period to lawful permanent residence.

TRA Temporary Resident Alien status, granted to section 245A applicants during phase I of the legalization process.

**USDA** U.S. Department of Agriculture

# APPENDIX C.

## METHODOLOGY

To comply with the reporting mandates of IRCA sections 404 (b) and (c), the Administration funded two national surveys of the legalized alien population. These surveys, undertaken in 1989 and 1992, were conducted by Westat, Inc. of Rockville, MD. The first survey, LPS1, was done under contract to the Immigration and Naturalization Service, while the second, LPS2, was done under contract to the Department of Labor. LPS1 contacted 6,193 respondents; LPS2 reinterviewed 4,012 of the original respondents. The response rates for the two studies were 83 and 82 percent, respectively.

## **LPS1 Sample Design**

The design of the Legalized Population Follow-up Survey sample derives from that of the first Legalized Population Survey. LPS1 employed a two-stage stratified cluster sample in which non-Mexican applicants were over-sampled relative to Mexicans.

Selection of Legalization Offices. In the first stage, 40 legalization offices (LOs) were selected from among the 107 listed in the sampling frame, i.e., a preliminary INS Legalization Application Processing System data file (LAPS). This preliminary LAPS file contained nearly 1.4 million applicants ages 18 and older, and about 95 percent of all approved applicants at that time.

Non-Mexicans were oversampled relative to Mexicans to ensure the reliability of estimates for other smaller groups. The 20 largest LOs were included in the LPS1 sample with certainty. The 9 LOs with fewer than 400 applicants, and the four LOs outside the coterminous United States were categorically excluded. The remaining 74 LOs were sorted by INS Region and percent Mexican within Region. From this list another 20 LOs were systematically sampled, taking account of both the number and the nationality mix of applicants through each LO.

Selection of Applicants within LOs. In the second stage, sub-samples of applicants were selected within each sampled LO. Samples were drawn on two successive dates, the first prior to the survey and the second (from among

persons newly added to the file) in April 1989. The total universe count was 1.5 million applicants. It excluded all denied and terminated cases as well as those under the age of 18 on January 31, 1989. Records of all applicants in the selected LOs were extracted from the LAPS file. Measures of size (MOS) were assigned to each case. These were conditional probabilities of selection that were directly proportional to the sampling fraction for their nationality and inversely proportional to the selection probability of their LO.

The extract file was then sorted in descending order by LO size, country of citizenship, sex, and year of birth. From this sorted file, a sample of applicants was drawn with probabilities proportionate to the measure of size. This yielded a self-weighting sample within two nationality groups: Mexican and non-Mexican.

### LPS2 Sample Design

The method whereby LPS2 sample was derived from the list of LPS1 respondents is outlined in table C1 and is described below. Identifiers of all LPS1 respondents were matched to the updated LAPS file to determine which individuals met the criteria for inclusion as of January, 1992. A total of 502 were ineligible, either because they had not received LPR status or were believed to have died. Because of resource limitations, only 5,000 of the remaining 5,691 were targeted for reinterview.

Thus 691 cases were randomly drawn for a reserve file. The eligibles were sorted by zipcode; the sampling fraction (691/5,691) was cumulated with their initial measure of size. A random number counter was established, beginning with a randomly selected number between zero and one. This counter was incremented by one following each sample selection.

Cases were selected from the sorted file by comparing their cumulative MOS with the incremented counter. For example, the initial case selected was the first whose cumulative MOS was equal to or greater than the initial random number. The next case had an MOS equal to or greater than RN+1, etc. This procedure identified 691 reserve file records. The remaining 5,000 individuals constituted the primary LPS2 file.

Before proceeding, Westat statisticians established that there were no statistically significant differences in the gender, nationality, or age distributions of the primary and reserve samples.

### The LPS2 Universe of Analysis

The LPS2 respondents represent just 1.3 of the 1.8 million persons legalized under section 245A of the Immigration and Nationality Act. The exact number (1,294,562) falls short of total applicants (1,763,434) as a result of exclusions of certain groups of individuals from the target population. These include

legalized aliens who were not part of the original LPS1 target population because (a) they were not yet entered into the Legalization Application Processing System when the LPS1 sample was drawn, (b) they lived outside the contiguous 48 states, or (c) they had not reached their 18th birthday by February, 1989. Also excluded were certain members of the original target population who (a) failed to obtain lawful permanent resident status by January 1992, (b) had by that time permanently left the contiguous 48 States, or (c) were known to have died.

Table Cl indicates the number of LPS1 respondents who did not participate in LPS2 and the reason they were not included in the second survey. It also illustrates the manner in which interviews were conducted, and the corresponding field and telephone center response rates.

Throughout this volume, estimates of behavioral change between LPS1 and LPS2 are based on a restricted LPS sample. That is, only records of individuals who participated in both surveys have been used for this type of analysis. As a result of this restriction, estimates for certain items "at application" may not correspond with those published in the first Report on the Legalized Alien Population.

Sensitivity analyses to determine if the LPS1 male respondents who did not participate in LPS2 were systematically different than those who did participate reveal several important findings (Singer, forthcoming).

First, household composition is an important factor. Respondents who were living alone at the time of LPS1 were less likely to be interviewed in LPS2, and those who were living with children under the age of 18, more likely to be interviewed in LPS2. Second, LPS1 respondents who were working in either a laborer or service job were more likely to be interviewed in LPS2 than those working in agricultural occupations. Third, LPS1 respondents who lived in New York at that time were less likely to be reinterviewed in LPS2 than those who lived in California. Finally, there appears to be no systematic underrepresentation stemming from arrival period, mode of entry or labor force participation.

Table C2 shows both unweighted and weighted counts of respondents having the various characteristics discussed in this volume.

Table C1. Relationship Between LPS1 and LPS2 Samples: Nature of LPS2 Contact and Case Disposition

Disposition	Newson Section	Percent of LPS2			
	Field	Phone	Total	Eligibles	
LPS1 Sample	5,567	626	6,193		
Not Sampled for LPS2	853	340	1,193		
Ineligible in January 1992	NA	NA NA	502		
Not in LAPS file	NA	NA NA	3		
Known dead	NA	NA NA	2		
No decision	NA	NA NA	471		
Awaiting information	NA	NA NA	18		
Denied	NA	NA NA	10	-	
Terminated	NA	NA NA		-	
Elizable and complete		190	,		
Eligible, not sampled	NA	NA NA	691	-	
Sampled for LPS2	4,714	286	5,000		
Later found to be ineligible	96	2	98		
Left U.S. permanently	69	i	70		
Known to be dead	27	1	28		
Believed to be eligible	4,618	284	4,902	100%	
LPS2 Respondents	3,851	161	4,012	82%	
Response rate (percent)	83%	56%	82%	82%	
Number of interviews					
In person	3,423		2 422		
By telephone	417	161	3,423	70%	
By proxy	11	101	578 11	12%	
ion-Respondents	767	123	890	18%	
Reason for Nonresponse				10.0	
Could not be located	574		-		
Refusal, breakoff		96	670	14%	
Not at home	97	6	103	2%	
Left U.S. temporarily	33 21	15 2	48	1%	
Too ill to interview	21	2	23	0%	
Moved too far, no phone	17	0	17	0%	
Postal problem	16		16	0%	
Language problem		-	8	0%	
randonde brooms	1	4	5	0%	

NA: Not available.

Not applicable.

Table C2. Unweighted and Weighted Counts: LPS2 Respondents, 1992

Characteristic	Unweighted Sample	Weighted Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup>	Characteristic	Unweighted Sample	Weighted Legalized Adults <sup>a</sup>
Total	4,012	1,294,562	Total	4,012	1,294,562
Sox			Labor Force Status		
Male	2,165	724,099	Employed	3,034	969,480
Female	1.846	570,049	Unemployed	247	83,199
Pettage	1,040	370,043	Not in Labor Force	730	241,468
Region of Origin					
Mexico	1,937	893,035	Firm Size (number of		
Central America	1,029	189,453	workers employed)		
Other Western Hemisphere	446	92,500	1 employee	337	91.870
Canada and Other	598	118,951	2-4	367	110,439
Capaca and Other	390	110,551	5-9	345	113,178
			10-49	844	290,099
Period of Arrival		00/ //8		373	
Before 1975	778	284,665	50-99		123,996
1975-1979	1,493	497,096	100-499	479	150,936
1980 or later	1,722	505,896	500 or more	245	74,789
Age at Amival			Occupation		
17 or less	1,027	394,381	Prof., tech., or mgr.	305	77,382
18 or more	2,965	893,115	Sales	186	51,270
10 Of IRAC	2,900	053,113	Administrative support	236	67,768
Years of Schooling Completed			Services		
0 to 6	1,582	597,322	Private household	201	51,912
7 to 11	1,011	327,527	Food	298	100,703
12 or more	1,418	369,298	Other services	371	108,622
12 or more	1,410	309,290	Farm	129	54,160
			Craft, repair	417	141,567
Ability to Speak English		202 222		657	228,245
Not at all	745	283,035	Operator, transport		
Not very well	1,597	540,834	Labor	233	87,849
Very well, well	1,658	467,176	and the second		
			Industry		
Pince of Residence			Agriculture	116	49,339
California	2,178	749,710	Construction	226	81,824
Texas	464	165,985	Manufacturing		
New York	428	94,221	Durable goods	308	111,557
Other	941	284,231	Nondurable goods	366	125,720
			Wholesale, retail trade		
Age in 1992			Restaurant	300	100,365
A4 AA	772	285,788	Other trade	474	152,432
21-29			Services	7/4	132,432
30-39	1,771	580,753		224	68 408
40 or more	1,442	421,368	Business		65,435
			Private household	218	58,340
Family Income in 1991			Other services	511	146,397
\$11,999 or less	785	256,241	Other	288	77,682
\$12,000-\$19,999	925	313,647			
\$20,000-\$29,999	903	298,529	Class of Work		
\$30,000 or more	1,018	308,640	Wage and salary	2,596	849,690
	1		Government employees	129	34,280
			Self-employed	268	73,375
			Unpaid family worker	24	6,896

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Section 245A beneficiaries ages 21 and above by January 31, 1992.

Note: Some categories may not add to the total due to missing data.

# APPENDIX D.

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# APPENDIX E.

LPS2 SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

OMB Number: 1225-0054 Expiration Date: January 31, 1993

ATTACH MINI LABEL HERE

#### LEGALIZED POPULATION FOLLOW-UP SURVEY

Hello. My name is \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. I work for Westat, Inc., a nationally-known private research organization. We are doing a study for the Congress of the United States about people who have become legalized residents of this country under the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1966. As one of those who has benefitted from this law, you have been selected to assist the Congress to understand better the recent experiences of legalized residents. With information provided by persons like yourself, the Congress will be better able to address your needs and plan for the future of the country.

We appreciate your help in the survey we conducted three years ago. Your participation was voluntary then, as it is this time. However, your help is essential because we cannot use anyone else in your place. The information you provide will never be identified with you or your family, and will not affect your status or the status of any other person.

BOX 1

#### CONFIDENTIALITY STATEMENT

The Legalized Population Survey is authorized under Section 404 of the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, and Section 201 (c) (5) (A) as amended in 1988. The information you provide will be used for research purposes only. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and protected from disclosure, as specified by the Privacy Act of 1974 and as required by law. The information you provide will never be identified with you or your family and will not affect your status or the status of any other person.

Westat, Inc. 1650 Research Blvd. Rockville, MD 20850

#### A. DEMOGRAPHICS

I would like to start by asking some questions about you.

A-1. What is your date of birth?

IF UNKNOWN, ASK FOR AGE. CONFIRM THAT RESPONDENT'S DATE OF BIRTH/AGE IS THE SAME AS ON THE CASE FOLDER LABEL.

MONTH	DAY	_1  <u>9</u>  _
		OR

A-2. CODE SEX BY OBSERVATION ONLY.

MALE	1
FEMALE	2
DON'T KNOW/NOT SURE	8

BOX 2 REFER TO A-1 AND A-2.

INFORMATION GIVEN MATCHES INFORMATION ON CASE FOLDER LABEL

☐ (A-4).

INFORMATION GIVEN DOES <u>NOT</u> MATCH INFORMATION ON CASE FOLDER LABEL. REFER TO TRACING INFORMATION SHEET AND CASE FOLDER LABEL, AND RESOLVE

☐ (A-4).

UNABLE TO RESOLVE.

(A-3).

A-3. The information we have about the person I am looking for does not match the information you have given me. I need to locate the person I am looking for. These are all the questions I need to ask you; thank you for your help.

TERMINATE INTERVIEW.

A-4.	Please look at this card. What race do you consider yourself to be	
SHO CAR A-	c. Asian or Pacific Islander, or	02
A-6.	Please look at this card. Before coming to the United States to live, the longest a	was the place you lived
SHO CAR A-5	b. small town or village,	3
вох з	REFER TO CASE FOLDER LABEL	
	RESPONDENT IS FROM MEXICO	☐ (A-6)
	RESPONDENT IS FROM A COUNTRY OTHER THAN MEXICO	☐ (A-7)
A-6.	In which State in Mexico were you born?	
	STATE OF BIRTH IN MEXICO	
A-7.	Did you live in Mexico, even temporarily, just before coming to the Ur	nited States to live?
	YES	1 (A-8) 2 (SECTION B)
A-8.	In which State in Mexico did you live just before coming to the United	States to live?

STATE OF LAST RESIDENCE IN MEXICO

## **B. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY**

B-1.	Do you speal	k a language other than English at home?			
	Y	8		1	
		D, SPEAK ENGLISH ONLY		2	(SECTION C)
B-2.	How well do	you speak English? Do you speak it			
		very well.		1	(B-5)
		well,		2	(,
	C.	not well, or		3	
	d.	not at ali?		4	
B-3.	If you have to	read in English, can you read and understand			
			YES	NO	
	a.	a newspaper written in English?	1	2	
	b.	a magazine written in English?	1	2	
	C.	instructions or recipes written in English?	1	2	
B-4.	If you have to	speak in English, can you			
			YES	NO	
		speak in English with a sales clerk?	1	2	
		speak in English with a doctor, nurse	•	-	
	•	or teacher?	1	2	
	C.	speak in English on the telephone?	i	2	
B-5.		about your English-speaking skills compared to Would you say that your English-speaking skills			
	Ulmeu States	. Wood you say that your English-speaking skills	mint y	our jo	o opportunites
	a.	a great deal,	******	1	
	b.	somewhat, or,	*******	2	
	C.	not at all?		3	

#### C. EDUCATION

#### REGULAR SCHOOLING

The next questions are about your education.

C-1. Please look at this card. How much regular schooling have you completed?

CIRCLE THE HIGHEST LEVEL COMPLETED OR DEGREE RECEIVED. IF CURRENTLY ENROLLED, CIRCLE THE LEVEL OF PREVIOUS GRADE COMPLETED OR HIGHEST DEGREE RECEIVED.

DO NOT INCLUDE ANY NON-CREDIT COURSES, VOCATIONAL, TRADE, OR BUSINESS SCHOOL.

(C-5)

RECORD COMMENTS. CODE IF POSSIBLE.



a.	No regular school completed	00
b.	Nursery or kindergarten	96
C.	1st grade	01
d.	2nd grade	02
<b>e</b> .	3rd grade	03
f.	4th grade	04
g.	5th grade	05
h.	6th grade	06
i.	7th grade	07
J.	8th grade	08
k.	9th grade	
I.	10th grade	
m.	11th grade	11
n.	High School diploma, 12th grade	
0.	No High School diploma, 12th grade	
p.	GED.	
q.	Some college, no degree	
r.	Associate degree in college	
8.	Bachelor's degree	
t.	Master's degree	
u.	Professional school degree	
v.	Doctoral degree	

		you applied for temporary residence in (MONTH AND Y e in some of the questions I'm going to ask.	EAR (	OF API	PLICATION).
C-2.		plied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you co litted toward a high school diploma or higher degree?	mplet	ed any	y studies the
	VE	is			
		)		(C-5)	
		ONT KNOW		(C-5)	
C-3.	What, if any, since (DATE)	diplomas or degrees have you received as a result of	these	studie	es completed
	CIRCLE ALL	THAT APPLY.			
		NONE	01		
	b.	GED			
	C.	HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	03		
	d.	ASSOCIATE DEGREE IN COLLEGE			
		BACHELOR'S DEGREE			
	1.	MASTER'S DEGREE			
	••	PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL DEGREE			
	h.	DOCTORAL DEGREE			
	1	OTHER (SPECIFY:	00		
			09		
C-4.	Has this scho	oling helped you to			
			YES	B N	IQ
	a.	assume additional responsibilities on your job?			2
	b.	get a job that uses the skills you learned?	1		2
	C.	get an increase in pay?	1	2	2
	НА	S NOT WORKED SINCE SCHOOLING			
NON-RE	GULAR SCHOOLIN	IG .			
C-5.		have you taken any English language classes? Do no s you may have taken to qualify for permanent residen		de the	40 hours of
	VE	S			
			1		
	NO		2		

C-6.	Since (DATE), have you <u>attended</u> any			
			YES	NO
	a. <u>formal job training program?</u> b. vocational school, trade school, or busing	1088	1	2
	c. other non-credit courses?		;	2
BOX 4	REFER TO C-6.			
	AT LEAST ONE ITEM CODED YES (1)	(C-7)		
	ALL ITEMS CODED NO (2)	(SECTION D)		
C-7.	Thinking about the program or course in which you state, or local government help you pay for this training		time,	did the Federa
	YES, GOVERNMENT PAID PART OR ALL		1	
	NO, RESPONDENT PAID ALL		8	
C-B	Did you apply for this training through the Job Training	Partnarehin Arr	lmou	n ee ITPA?
<b>00</b> .	Did you apply for this training through the 500 framing	raidieisiip AC	, KILOW	II do VII A
	YES		1	
	NO		2	
	DON'T KNOW		8	
C-9.	Was this training given in a classroom or on-the-job?			
	a. IN A CLASSROOM			
	b. ON-THE-JOB		2	
C-10.	Please look at this card. Did you attend this training for			
C-10.	Please look at this card. Did you attend this training for			
	a. less than 1 week,	***************************************	,	
C-10.	a. less than 1 week,		1 2	
	a. less than 1 week,		1 2 3	
	a. less than 1 week,		3	
	a. less than 1 week,		3 4 5	
SHON CARI C-10	a. less than 1 week,		3	

C-11.	Which o	of the categories on this card best describes the content of this	trair	ning?
SHOV CARE C-11		a. Secretarial or word processing skills,	3 4 5	
C-12.	Did you	complete this program or course?  YES	,	(a)
		NOCURRENTLY ATTENDING	2	(C-13) (C-13)
	(a)	Did you receive any kind of certificate, diploma, or license? YES	1 2	(5 15)
C-13.	Has this	training helped you to		
			YES	NO.
		assume additional responsibilities on your job?      get a job that uses the skills you learned?	1	2 2
		c. get an increase in pay?	1	2
		HAS NOT WORKED SINCE TRAINING		

D. EMPLOYMENT The next questions are about employment and other activities.  ACTIVITY HISTO	PRY LETTER	D-1 Please look at this card. What were you doing (most of last week/before that/during MONTHS)? Were you ENTER CODE	D-2 What kind of work (are/were) you doing at this job? PROBE: What (are/were) your most important activities or duties at this job?
SHOW CARD D-1	^		
DO NOT CIRCLE ACTIVITY CODES BELOW. ENTER CODE UNDER D-1 ON NEXT AVAILABLE I	В		
D-1 ACTIVITIES CODES	C C		
a. Working for some pay,	B SK D-2 - D-8)		
d. Looking for work,	T A JOB		
g. With no job, unable to work, 07 h. Retired, or 08 i. Doing something else? 09	F		
	G		
	D-9.	have not ment	1991, did you have any (other) jobs that you loned, even part-time jobs? (D-1, READ JOB CODES ONLY) (BOX 6)

D-3 What kind of business or industry (do/did) you work for? PROBE: What (do/did) they make or do?	D-4 What (is/was) the name of your employer?	D-5 How many hours per week (do/did) you usually work at this job?	D-6 IF JOB: In what state or country (is/was) this job located? IF NOT A JOB: In what state or country were you living?	D-7 In what month and year did (ACTMTY) start? RECORD BELOW. MARK X ON CALENDAR.	D-8 In what month and year did (ACTIVITY) end? RECORD BELOW. MARK X ON CALENDAR. CONNECT X'S WITH LINE
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO  _ _  YR  _ _
				MO  _   YR  _	CURRENT [] MO  _ _  YR  _ _
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO I_I_I  YR I_I_I
				MO  _ _  YR  _ _	CURRENT   MO
BOX 6 WHAT IS THE RESPONDENT'S CURRENT  a. WORKING AT CURRENT JOB  (IF MORE THAN ONE, CHOOSE JOB WORKED)		ACTIVITY CO UNDER D	DDE I	FIRST BOX CHE LINE ETTER	
b. UNABLE TO WORK	•		(E	NTER)	
c. NOT WORKING FOR OTHER REASONS			08, 09	_	(D-18) (D-10)

Note: the Activity Calendar on the following page originally folded out from the Activity History to verify that all relevant months were accounted for.

						ACT	M	TY (	CAL	EN	DA	R						
BEF			1	991						1	9	9 2					В	OX 5
ORE 19		F M A	A M .	) ) (	A S !	O N C O	DEC	JAN	F E B	M A	A M	N C C	JUL	AUG	8 6 9	J	ANUA TO PI	EVERY TH FROM ARY 1991 RESENT
1	1	2 3	4 8 (	3 7	B 9 1	10 11	12	1	2	3	1 5	6	7	8	9		F	OR?
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																		(D-9) (D-1)
																YES	8	(D-9) (CONT. PAGE, D-1)

	Did you have a job or business from which you were temporarily absent of last week?	or or	layofi
	YES	•	
	NO		(D-1
1	Were you receiving wages or salary for any of the time off last week?		
	YES	1	
	NO		
1	Why were you absent from work last week?		
1	RECORD VERBATIM AND CIRCLE ONE CODE		
	COMMENTS:		
		_	
		=	
	a. OWN ILLNESS	01	1
	a. OWN ILLNESS		1
		02	],
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03	}«
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03 04	}~
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER c. ON VACATION d. BAD WEATHER e. LABOR DISPUTE	02 03 04 05	}~
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03 04 05	}~
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03 04 05	1
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03 04 05 06 07	1
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER	02 03 04 05 06 07	1
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER c. ON VACATION d. BAD WEATHER e. LABOR DISPUTE f. NEW JOB TO BEGIN WITHIN 30 DAYS g. TEMPORARY LAYOFF, UNDER 30 DAYS h. INDEFINITE LAYOFF, 30 DAYS OR MORE OR INDEFINITE CALLBACK	02 03 04 05 06 07	}(0)
	b. ILLNESS OF FAMILY MEMBER c. ON VACATION d. BAD WEATHER e. LABOR DISPUTE f. NEW JOB TO BEGIN WITHIN 30 DAYS g. TEMPORARY LAYOFF, UNDER 30 DAYS h. INDEFINITE LAYOFF, 30 DAYS OR MORE OR INDEFINITE CALLBACK i. OTHER	02 03 04 05 06 07	1

	COMMENTS:	_	
	a. BELIEVES NO WORK AVAILABLE IN LINE OF WORK OR AREA b. COULDN'T FIND ANY WORK	02 03 04 05 06 07 08	) (D-18
	I. ILL HEALTH, PHYSICAL DISABILITIES		
	k. OTHER		)
5.	What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?		
	CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY. (PROBE: What else did you do?)		
	a. CHECKED WITH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT AGENCY	01	)
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY		
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY	03	(D-16
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY d. CHECKED WITH FRIENDS OR RELATIVES	03 04	(D-16
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY d. CHECKED WITH FRIENDS OR RELATIVES e. PLACED OR ANSWERED ADS f. WENT TO LABOR PICK-UP SITE	03 04 05	(D-16
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY d. CHECKED WITH FRIENDS OR RELATIVES e. PLACED OR ANSWERED ADS	03 04 05	(D-16
	b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY d. CHECKED WITH FRIENDS OR RELATIVES e. PLACED OR ANSWERED ADS f. WENT TO LABOR PICK-UP SITE	03 04 05 06	(D-16)

	MONTH YEAR  NEVER WORKED AT ALL9	9999 (D-36	)			
In what month ar full or part time?	d year did you last work for pay at a regular job or busine	ess, elther				
•	. OTHER (SPECIFY:)	7				
		6				
		5				
		4				
		2				
	. ALREADY HAD A JOB	1				
CIRCLE ALL THA	TAPPLY					
wny couldn't you take a job <u>last week</u> ?						
	CIRCLE ALL THA	b. TEMPORARY ILLNESS	a. ALREADY HAD A JOB			

D-19.	How many hours did you work last week at (all) your job(s)?					
	I I I I TOTAL HOURS LAST WEEK					

	REFER TO LINE LETTER ENTERED IN BOX 6. RECORD IN D-20:
	- NAME OF EMPLOYER (D-4) - USUAL HOURS WORKED PER WEEK (D-5)
D-20.	I would now like to ask you about the (main) job you had last week, that is, working for
	EMPLOYER
	where you usually work  NUMBER OF HOURS  PER WEEK
	What did you do to find this job?
	CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY.
	a. CHECKED WITH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT AGENCY 01 b. CHECKED WITH PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY. 02 c. CHECKED WITH EMPLOYER DIRECTLY
D-21.	In this position, are you
	a. an employee of a <u>private</u> company, business, or of an individual, working for wages, salary, or commission,
D-22.	Are you paid by the hour on this job?

BOX 8

REFER TO ACTIVITY HISTORY

How much do you earn per hour?

\$ |\_\_|\_|.|\_| PER HOUR

any deductions a. b. c. d. e.	Federal or State Income Tax?	S NO 2 2 2 2 2	DK 8 8 8 8
a. b. c. d. e. you usually paid	Federal or State Income Tax?		8
c. d. e. you usually paid	Federal or State Income Tax?		8
c. d. e. you usually paid	A Health plan? 1 Social Security (FICA)? 1 Any other retirement? 1 OTHER (SPECIFY: 1	2 2 2 2	8 8 8
c. d. e. you usually paid	A Health plan? 1 Social Security (FICA)? 1 Any other retirement? 1 OTHER (SPECIFY: 1	2 2 2	8 8
c. d. e. you usually paid	Social Security (FICA)?	2 2	8
e. you usually paid	OTHER (SPECIFY:) 1	2	8
you usually paid			
	d		
	d		
	All in cash,		
	Part in cash and part by check, or 2		
C.			
d.	OTHER (SPECIFY:		
REFER TO	D-20 AND D-21.		
RESPOND	ENT IS SELF-EMPLOYED (D-21 = CODE 4 OR 5)		D-29)
RESPOND	ENT WORKS 40 HOURS OR LESS PER WEEK (D-20)		D-27)
RESPOND	ENT WORKS MORE THAN 40 HOURS PER WEEK (D-20)		D-26)
-	REFER TO RESPONDI RESPONDI	c. All by check?	c. All by check?

D-27.	At this job, doe	e yo	ur employer pay for <u>any</u> or your			
				YES	NO	D
			vacations?	1	2	8
		b.		1	2	8
		C.	sick leave?	1	2	Ä
		0.		•	•	•
D-28.	On this job, are a union?	you	a member of a labor union or an employee association	simil	ar to	
		YE	S	1		
				2		
			NT KNOW	8		
D-29.			about how many workers (does your employer/do you) se of work? Please look at this card. Would you say the			
					(D-31)	
S	HOW	a.	2 - 4	1	(ויסיט)	
1 0	CARD	b.		3		
	D-29	c. d.	5-9	3		
		O.	10 - 49	5		
		f.	50 - 99	6		
		••		7		
		g. h.	1,000 or more employees?	8		
D-30.	How would you	des	scribe most of your co-workers? Are they			
		a.	Hispanic,	1		
		b.	Non-Hispanic, White,	2		
		C.	Non-Hispanic, Black,	3		
		d.	Asian,	4		
		е.	American Indian or Alaskan Native, or	5		
		f.	something else? (SPECIFY:	6		
D-31.	How much do y	ou o	communicate in English when you are at work? Would y	/OU		
	say					
		a.	all the time,		(D-33)	
		b.	most of the time,	2		
		C.	about half of the time,	3		
		d.		4		
		€.	not at all?	5		

D-32.	If your	job requires	it, can	you.	

D-32.	If your job requir	es it, can you				
				YES	NO	NOT
	a. read an	d understand work-r				
	and wri		nglish?	1	2	3
				1	2	3
D-33.		sk you about on-th 2 months in the Unit	e-job injuries that ma ed States.	y have	happer	ned to you
	of the following:	get medical attention	had an injury at work to on or treatment for mi consciousness, or trai	nor inj	urles, be	unable to
S						
	ARD 0-33	. hanna nann hanna bahar	and any through the december of		10	****
D-34.	How many times	nave you been injur	ed on the job during ti	1e <u>Dasi</u>	12 mon	uns?
		1_1_1				
	•	NUMBER OF INJURI	ES			
D-35.		e day the (injury/inj day of work as a res	uries) occurred, how uit of being injured?	many	days dic	you miss
		_ _ _				
	NU	MBER OF WORKDA	YS LOST			
D-36.	Since you applie	d for temporary resk	dence in (DATE), have	you tri	ed to ge	a job?

YES .....

NO ...... 2

(BOX 10)

011011	a. made it much easier,	
SHOW	b. made it somewhat easier	
CARD	c. had no effect	
D-37 &	d. made it somewhat harder, or	
D-39	e. made it much harder? 5	
BOX 10	REFER TO ACTIVITY CODES IN D-1 OF ACTIVITY HISTORY	
	RESPONDENT HAS WORKED SINCE JANUARY 1991	
	(AT LEAST ONE CODE = 01, 02, OR 03)	-39)
	RESPONDENT HAS NOT WORKED SINCE JANUARY 1991	
38 Since	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)	38)
-39. Please	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?  YES	
-39. Please	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  (D   you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?   YES 1   NO 2   (SECTION)	
-39. Please advance	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?  YES	
39. Please advance	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?  YES	
39. Please advance SHOW CARD	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?  YES	
9-39. Please advance	(ONLY CODES 04 THROUGH 09)  you applied for temporary residence in (DATE), have you held a job?  YES	

#### E. FAMILY/HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION AND MIGRATION

### **FAMILY/HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION**

E-1. Please look at this card and tell me which of these categories best describes your current marital status. Are you... CIRCLE THE LOWEST NUMBER WHEN TWO OR MORE SEEM TO APPLY. a. married and living with your (husband/wife) in the same household? What is (his/her) first name?...... 01 GO TO HOUSEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME b. living with a partner as if married? SHOW What is (his/her) first name? ...... 02 AND CIRCLE "1" UNDER "S". c. married with your (husband/wife) living in the United States but not in the same household? .......... 03 d. married but your (husband/wife) is living outside of the United States? ...... 04 f. divorced or have you had a marriage annulled? ...... 06 g. legally or formally separated?...... 07 h. never married?...... 08 DON'T KNOW ...... 98 Now I'm going to ask some questions about people who usually eat and sleep in the same household

Now I'm going to ask some questions about people who usually eat and sleep in the same household as you here in the United States. Please do not include persons who maintain a usual residence elsewhere. Some of these questions may not apply to you, but I need to ask them anyway.

E-2.	First, how many people, including yourself, eat and sleep in the same household as you the United States?	ı in
	_  _  NUMBER IN HOUSEHOLD	

BOX 11	REFER TO E-2	
	RESPONDENT ONLY LIVES IN HOUSEHOLD	☐ (E-16)
	RESPONDENT AND SPOUSE/PARTNER ONLY LIVE IN HOUSEHOLD	☐ (E-10)
	RESPONDENT AND OTHERS LIVE IN HOUSEHOLD	☐ (E-3)

E-3.		de stepparents, mother-in-law and fat			
	N	ONE	00	(E-4)	
	1.	_ _  PARENTS (a)			
	(a) W	hat are their first names?			
	GO TO HOU "2" UNDER "	ISEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(SPP".	) ON NEXT AVAILABLE	LINE AND CIRCLE	
E4.	United State adopted, and	children of any age do you have <u>livi</u> s? Please include stepchildren, for d children for whom you have assu and daughters-in-law.	oster children, children	you have legally	
	N	ONE	00	(E-5)	
	1.	_ _  CHILDREN (a)			
	(a) W	hat are their first names?			
	GO TO HOU	SEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S) CH".	ON NEXT AVAILABLE	LINE AND CIRCLE	
E-6.	the same ho	rothers, sisters, brothers-in-law, and susehold in the United States? Also and sisters legally adopted.			
	N	ONE	00	(E-6)	
	I_	_ _  BROTHERS/SISTERS (a)			
	(a) W	hat are their first names?			
	GO TO HOU "4" UNDER "E	SEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S)	ON NEXT AVAILABLE	LINE AND CIRCLE	
E-6.		randparents and great-grandparents the United States?	do you have living wit	th you in the same	
	N	ONE	00	(E-7)	
	I_	_ _  GRANDPARENTS (a)			
	(a) W	nat are their first names?			
	GO TO HOU	SEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S) P.	ON NEXT AVAILABLE	LINE AND CIRCLE	

E-7.	How many grandchildren and great-grandchildren do you have <u>living with you in the same</u> <u>household</u> in the United States?					
		NONE				
		_ _  GRANDCHILDREN (a)				
	(a)	What are their first names?				
	GO TO HOUSEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S) ON NEXT AVAILABLE LINE AND CIRCLE "6" UNDER "GC".					
BOX 12						
:	ENT	W A LINE ON HOUSEHOLD GRID UNDER NAMES RECORDED THROUGH E-7. ER ALL NAMES ABOVE THE FAMILY LINE ONTO THE FAMILY LIST ID FAMILY LIST TO RESPONDENT				
•		: "In some of the questions I'll be asking shortly, I will be referring to these people in household".				
E-8.	Now, in addition to these people, how many other relatives do you have <u>living with you in the same household</u> in the United States?					
		NONE				
		_ _  OTHER RELATIVES (a)				
	(a)	What are their first names?				
		HOUSEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S) ON NEXT AVAILABLE LINE(S) AND "7" UNDER "OR".				
E-9.		any people, not related to you, do you have <u>living with you in the same household</u> in ted States?				
		NONE				
		_ _  OTHER PEOPLE NOT RELATED (a)				
	(a)	What are their first names?				
		HOUSEHOLD GRID. RECORD NAME(S) ON NEXT AVAILABLE LINE(S) AND "8" UNDER "NR".				

E-10. The following are all the people you have told me who are <u>living with you in the same</u> household in the United States, and who do not maintain a usual residence elsewhere.

READ NAMES ON HOUSEHOLD GRID. ASK: "Is there anyone else?"

- MAKE NECESSARY CORRECTIONS.
- FOR EACH PERSON LISTED ON HOUSEHOLD GRID, ASK E-11 THROUGH E-15 BEFORE GOING TO THE NEXT PERSON.



#### RESIDENT STATUS.

- 1. Resident status through Amnesty Program (like you, arrived in U.S. before 1982).
- 2. Resident status through Special Agricultural Worker Program (SAW).
- 3. Family Fairness/Family Unity
- 4. Permanent resident other than Amnesty Program or SAW Program
- 5. Any of the following:
  - Temporary visa (for example, temporary worker, student, vacation)
  - Temporary Protected Status (only for people from El Salvador, Kuwait, Lebanon, Liberia or Somalia)
  - Refugee, Parolee, Asylum applicant
  - Extended Voluntary Departure (EVD)
- 6. U.S. Citizen.
- 7. Some other status
- 8. DON'T KNOW (DO NOT PROBE)

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PERSON NUMBER	FOR ALL FOR ALL FOR HOUSE  E-16. During was at a	ASK FOR AGE 16 AND OVER.  E-17. During March 1992, [were you/was (NAME)] attending post secondary school, that is, school that requires a high school diploma or GED?						
	a. full time	b. or part time?	NOT C. ATTENDING		YES	NO	DON'T KNOW	PERSON
01	(RESP) 1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (02)	(RESP)	1	2	8	01
02	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (03)		1	2	8	02
03	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (04)		1	2	8	03
04	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (05)		1	2	8	04
05	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (06)		1	2	8	05
06	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (07)		1	2	8	06
07	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (08)		1	2	8	07
08	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (09)		1	2	8	06
09	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (10)		11	2	8	09
10	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (11)		11	2	8	10
11	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (12)		1	2	8	11
12	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (13)		11	2	8	12
13	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (14)		1	2	8	13
14	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3 (15)		1	2	8	14
15	1 (E-17)	2 (E-17)	3		1	2	8	15

## MIGRATION

Now I have some different questions.

E-18.	Please le States?	ook at this card. Do you have any of these relatives living That is, (husband/wife), children, parents, brothers, sisters?	g o	utside of the United				
SHO CAR E-18		YES		(E-26)				
	come to	may know, legal residents can ask that certain relatives livin the United States to live. The next few questions are about he have living outside the United States. Some of the follow you, but I need to ask them anyway.	wor	many such relatives				
E-19.	Do you h	have a (husband/wife) living outside the United States?		ė				
		YES		(a) (E-20)				
	(a).	(a). Does your (husband/wife) intend to come to the United States to live?						
		YES						
E-20.		have any children of any age living outside the United Schildren and stepchildren, but do not include sons-in-laws or						
		YES		(E-21) (E-23)				
E-21.	Do you have any children living outside the United States who are under 21 years of age?							
		YES	1 2	(a) (E-22)				
	(a).	How many of your children <u>under 21</u> living outside the Unit <u>married</u> ?	ed S	States are <u>not</u>				
		I_I_I UNDER 21, NOT MARRIED (b)						
		NONE	00	(c)				

<b>(b)</b> .	How many of these <u>unmarried</u> children intend to come to the United States to live?					
	_ _  UNDER 21, NOT MARRIED, INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED STATES (c)					
	NONE 00 (c)					
(c).	How many of your children under 21 living outside the United States are married?					
	_  UNDER 21, MARRIED (d)					
	NONE 00 (e)					
(d).	How many of these married children intend to come to the United States to live?					
	_  UNDER 21, MARRIED, INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED STATES (e)					
	NONE					
(e).	TOTAL (a) PLUS (c) =       = NUMBER OF CHILDREN <u>UNDER 21</u> LIVING OUTSIDE OF THE UNITED STATES.					
	You have told me you have child/children under 21 living outside of the United States. Is that correct?					
	YES 1					
	NO					
-22. Do you	have any children living outside the United States who are 21 years of age or older?					
	YES					
(a).	How many of your children <u>21 or older</u> living outside the United States are <u>not married</u> ?					
	_ _  21 OR OLDER, NOT MARRIED (b)					
	NONE					
(b).	How many of these <u>unmarried</u> children intend to come to the United States to live?					
	II_I 21 OR OLDER, NOT MARRIED, INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED STATES (c)					
	NONE					

	(C).	married?
		I_I_I 21 OR OLDER, MARRIED (d)
		NONE 00 (e)
	(d).	How many of these married children intend to come to the United States to live?
		21 OR OLDER, MARRIED, INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED STATES (e)
	<b>(e)</b> .	TOTAL (a) PLUS (c) =   _   = NUMBER OF CHILDREN 21 OR OLDER LIVING OUTSIDE OF THE UNITED STATES.
		You have told me you have child/children 21 or older living outside of
		the United States. Is that correct?
		YES
E-23.		have any parents living outside the United States? Please include stepparents or parents, but do not include a father-in-law or mother-in-law.
		YES 1 (a & b)
		NO
	(a).	How many?
		I_I_I PARENTS
	<b>(b)</b> .	How many of these parents intend to come to the United States to live?
		PARENTS INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED STATES
E-24.		have any brothers or sisters living outside the United States? Please include hers or sisters, but do not include brothers-in-law or sisters-in-law.
		YES
	(a).	How many?
		I_I_I BROTHERS/SISTERS
	<b>(b)</b> .	How many of these brothers or sisters intend to come to the United States to live?
		_ _  BROTHERS/SISTERS INTEND TO COME TO THE UNITED

BOX 13	REFER TO E-19 THROUGH E-23.						
	ONE OR MORE RELATIVES INTEND TO COME TO THE U. S.		(E-25).				
	NO RELATIVES INTEND TO COME TO THE U. S.	(E-26).					
E-25.	Have <u>any</u> steps been taken to bring (this/these) relative(s) to the Unit	ed State	s?				
		YES	NO	DK			
	a. filed a written application on their behalf with the						
	U.S. Immigration and Naturalization service?	1	2	8			
	<ul> <li>b. provided money, encouragement, or information?</li> </ul>	1	2	8			
	c. spoken with a lawyer?	1	2	8			
	<ul> <li>d. got information from the U.S. government on</li> </ul>			_			
	immigration procedures?	1	2	8			
-27.	Since <u>January 1991</u> , (including short trips) about how many days, we have you spent outside of the United States?	eks, or i	months	, in to			
	_  DAYS, OR						
	_  WEEKS, OR						
	_  MONTHS						
E-28.	On these occasions, why did you decide to leave the United States?	Vas it					
		YES	NO				
	a. to work?	1	2				
	b. to go shopping?	1	2 2 2 2				
	c. to visit relatives or friends?	1	2				
	d. to take a vacation?	1					
	e. to reside in Mexico or Canada? or	1	2				
	f. for some other reason? (SPECIFY:						

### F. SOCIAL SERVICES

REFER TO FAMILY LIST AND SAY: Now I'll be asking you some questions about your use of social services (and that of your family in this household. By family, I mean the names on this list. Please refer to this list when answering questions about your family. Please do not include any other household members).

F-1.	Many people in the United States receive different kinds of benefits and services. In (LAST CALENDAR MONTH) were you (or any of your family members living with you in the same household) receiving financial assistance or food stamps from a public or government agency in
	nousenoid) receiving financial assistance or food stamps from a public or government agency in the United States?

YES	1
NO	2
REFUSED	
DON'T KNOW	

F-2. More specifically, in (LAST CALENDAR MONTH) did you (or any family member) receive benefits or financial assistance from any of the sources on this card?

READ SHOW CARD SLOWLY UNTIL FIRST YES. AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children), SSI (Supplemental Security Income), State or Local General Assistance, UI (Unemployment Insurance Compensation), Workers Compensation, Social Security, Child Support, Retirement/Pension Funds, Food Stamps, WIC vouchers, School lunch benefits (free or reduced price), Food basket, food pantry contributions, or any other financial assistance.

SHOW	
F-2	

YES	1	(BOX 14)
NO	2	)
REFUSED	7	(F-9)
DON'T KNOW.	8	, ,

IF RESPONSE TO F-1 AND F-2 INCONSISTENT, DO NO. HECONCILE.

BOX 14	REFER TO HOUSEHOLD GRID.	
	AT LEAST ONE FAMILY MEMBER IS BETWEEN 3 AND 18 YEARS OLD	☐ (/ -3).
	NO FAMILY MEMBERS BETWEEN 3 AND 18 YEARS OLD	☐ (i -4).

F-3.	F In March of 1992, did anyone in your family receive free or "reduced price" achool lunch benefits"
	YES 1
	NO 2
	DON'T KNOW 8
	F
<b>-4</b> .	In (LAST CALENDAR MONTH), did you (or anyone in your family) receive food donations from any source?
	YES 1
	NO 2
	DON'T KNOW 8
	F
-5.	In (LAST CALENDAR MONTH), did you (or anyone in your family) receive WIC vouchers? (Th
•	Women, Infants, and Children Health and Nutrition program).
	YES 1
	NO 2
	DON'T KNOW 8

F-8. In (LAST CALENDAR MONTH), did you (or anyone in your family) receive (INCOME SOURCE)?		F-7. Who in your family actually received the (INCOME SOURCE)? include only those people whose names were on the check or who were actually issued coupons.  [PROBE: Who else received (INCOME SOURCE)?]	F-8. How much did (RECIPIENT) receive from (INCOME SOURCE) last month?		
	INCOME SOURCE	RECIPIENT'S NAME AND PERSON #	AMOUNT RECEIVED		
a.	AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children YES 1 (F-7) → NO 2 (b) ↓ DK 8 (b) ↓	a.    - -     - - -	a. \$00 \$00 \$00 (F-6b)		
b.	SSI (Supplemental Security Income)  YES 1 (F-7) →  NO 2 (c) ↓  DK 8 (c) ↓	b  - - - - - -	b. \$00 \$00 \$00 } (F-6c)		
C.	State or Local  General Assistance  YES 1 (F-7)  NO 2 (d) ↓  DK 8 (d) ↓	c.	c. \$00 \$00 \$00 } (F-6d)		
d.	UI (Unemployment Insurance Compensation)  YES 1 (F-7) →  NO 2 (e) ↓  DK 8 (e) ↓	d - - - - - - - - -	d. \$00 \$00 \$00 (F-6e)		
€.	Workers Compensation YES 1 (F-7) → NO 2 (f) ↓ DK 8 (f) ↓		e. \$00 \$00 \$00 (F-6f)		
f.	Social Security  YES 1 (F-7) →  NO 2 (g) ↓  DK 8 (g) ↓	· <u>                                     </u>	f. \$00 \$00 \$00 } (F-6g)		
g.	Child Support from an absent parent or alimony YES 1 (F-7) → NO 2 (h) ↓ DK 8 (h) ↓		g. \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00		

F-6. In (LAST CALENDAR MONTH), did you (or anyone in your family) receive (INCOME SOURCE)?	F-7. Who in your family actually received the (INCOME SOURCE)? Include only those people whose names were on the check or who were actually issued coupons.  [PROBE: Who else received (INCOME SOURCE)?]	F-8. How much did (RECIPIENT) receive from (INCOME SOURCE) last month?
INCOME SOURCE	RECIPIENT'S NAME AND PERSON #	AMOUNT RECEIVED
h. Retirement/Pension Fund: YES 1 (F-7) → NO 2 (I) ↓ DK 8 (I) ↓		h. \$00 \$00 \$00
I. Food Stamps  YES 1 (F-7) →  NO 2 (j) ↓  DK 8 (j) ↓	== ==  -	i. \$00 \$00 \$00   (F-7i(1))
	(1) Who in this household was <u>covered</u> by the Food Stamps that (RECIPIENT) received?	<
	(F-6j)	
J. Any other financial assistance? What kind? (SPECIFY:)		
YES 1 (F-7) → NO 2 (BOX 15) ↓ DK 8 (BOX 15) ↓		j. \$00 \$00 \$00 \$00
BOX 15 REFER TO F-6	, ITEM "I" (FOOD STAMPS) ABOVE.	
RECEIVES FO	OD STAMPS, F-6, ITEM "I" CODED YES (1)	(SECTION G).
DOES NOT RE NO OR DK (2	CEIVE FOOD STAMPS, F-6, ITEM "I" CODED DR 8)	☐ (F-9).

F-9. Have you ever heard of the Food Stamp Program?

F10. Do you know . . .

# G. HEALTH INSURANCE/CHILD CARE

# HEALTH

G-1.	The following questions are about your health care insurance. Are yo	ou now covered by		
		YES	NO	DK
	Medicaid (MediCAL or ACCESS), or any other type of state government medical assistance?      Medicare?	;	2 2	8
i-2.	Are <u>vou now</u> covered by			
		YES	NO	DK
	health insurance obtained through your job?      health insurance obtained through the job	1	2	8
		1	2	8
		1	2	8
BOX 16	REFER TO G-2			
	RESPONDENT HAS NO PRIVATE HEALTH INSURANCE, ALL ITEMS CODED NO (2)			(G-3)
	RESPONDENT HAS PRIVATE HEALTH INSURANCE THROUGH OWN JOB, ITEM "a" CODED YES (1)	1		(G-4)
	ALL OTHERS			(G-5)

G-3.	People have different reasons for not being covered by <u>private</u> health insurance. What are the reasons you yourself are not covered by private health insurance?
	CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY.
	(PROBE: Any other reason?)
	a. TOO EXPENSIVE
G-4.	Does your employer pay all, part, or none of your health insurance premium?  ALL

### IF RESPONDENT HAS NO FAMILY MEMBERS LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD, SKIP TO H-1.

G-5. The next question is about private health insurance coverage of family members. Is (FAMILY MEMBER) covered by private health insurance?

REFER RESPONDENT TO FAMILY LIST AND ASK FOR FAMILY MEMBERS WHOSE NAMES ARE ABOVE FAMILY LINE ON HOUSEHOLD GRID.

YES	NO	DK	PER- SON #
AN AN			01
	2	8	02
1	2	8	03
	2	8	04
1	2	8_	06
_	2	8	06
	2	8	07
	2	8	œ
_	2	8	œ
_	2	8	10
	2	8	_"
	2	8	12
_	2	8	13
	2	8	_14
	2	8	15

<b>BOX 17</b>	REFER TO FAMILY MEMBERS ABOVE LINE IN HOUSEHOLD GRID.							
	ONE OR MOR	RE FAMILY MEMBERS <u>UNDER AGE 13</u>		(G-6)				
	NO FAMILY N	EMBERS <u>UNDER AGE 13</u>		(SECTION H)				
CHILD CAF	E							
<b>3-6</b> .	looking for w	need someone to take care of the children ork, in school or training. In this household, CALENDAR MONTH)?						
		s		(SECTION H)				
G-7.	In (LAST CAL	ENDAR MONTH), who paid for the child care?						
	CIRCLE ALL 1	THAT APPLY.						
	(PROBE: Any	vone else?)						
		RESPONDENT OR RESPONDENT'S FAMILY FEDERAL, STATE OR LOCAL GOVERNMENT CHILD CARE AT NO CHARGE	· 2					
BOX 18	REFER TO G							
		YES		(G-8) (SECTION H)				
G-8.	F How much di	d you (and your family) pay for child care <u>last n</u>	nonth?					

## H. ASSETS AND HOUSEHOLD EXPENSES

Now I have some questions about your assets, income and expenses (and those of family members who live in the same household as you in the United States).

	Do you (and/or your husband/wife/partner) own any real estate, such as a land <u>outside</u> the United States?	house, farm, or
	YES	
H-2.	Apart from where you now live, do you (and/or your husband/wife/partner estate, such as a house, farm, or land in the United States?	own any real
	YES 1	
	NO 2	
	DON'T KNOW	
H-3.	Please look at this card and tell me who owns the (house/apartment) in which is it	you now live?
	CIRCLE THE LOWEST NUMBER WHEN 2 OR MORE SEEM TO APPLY	REFER TO
	CIRCLE THE LOWEST NUMBER WHEN 2 OR MORE SEEM TO APPLY. HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.	REFER TO
Cour	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.	REFER TO
SH	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in	
SH	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	HOUSEHOLD GRID IF NECESSARY.  a. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	A you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household), 1 (H-5 b. another family member on the Family List 2 (H-5 c. another household member, 3 (H-4 d. a relative not living in this household? 4 (H-4 e. someone else not living in this household? 5 (H-4 Do you (and/or your husband/wife/partner)	)
SH CA H	A. you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	A you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)
SH CA H	A you (and/or your husband/wife/partner in this household),	)

	• I_I.I_I_I_	1.00	
	DON'T KNOW		. 9008
	NOTHING (NONE HAS BEEN PAID (	OR MORTGAGE	.0000
16.		TH), which persons, including yourse ent, mortgage and/or utility bills?	alf, contributed to pay
	ENTER NAME(S) AND PERS	ON NUMBER(S) FROM HOUSEHOLD	GRID.
	PERSON #	NAME	
	_ _		
	1_1_1		
	1_1_1		
2 4 70	YES	ouse/apartment) where you live (in the	. 1 (4)
	(a) Do you (and your	family) pay for <u>local</u> telephone service?	S S A S
	2.25		
	5		
H-8.		sich letter comes closest to how much tenk, or in other investments? Is it	total money you (and y
SHO	The second second second second	000,	The second control of
CA	c. \$2,000 - \$2,96	10, or	. 3
	- 171 MINESTER STATES	<b>7</b>	[ locollois i
-		V	
	d. DON'T KNOW	•	(500.10)

# H-9. CIRCLE FAMILY SIZE BELOW AND ASK H-9 AS APPROPRIATE BASED ON FAMILY SIZE ENTERED IN BOX 19.

Figure look at this card. Was your total family income in (LAST CALENDAR MONTH) from these sources less or more than (AMOUNT)?

include money from earned income, Social Security retirement, survivors', or disability payments, Supplemental Security Income (SSI), Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), State or Local General Assistance, non-medical Veteran's Administration benefits, Unemployment insurance benefits, retirement income, disability income, educational assistance, annuity income, interest and dividends, rental income, support from a relative or friend outside the household, and any other money received.

# SHOW CARD H-9

**BOX 20** 

#### **FAMILY SIZE FAMILY SIZE** LESS THAN \$900 ..... 1 LESS THAN \$3,700 ..... 1 11 \$900 OR MORE..... 2 \$3,700 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$4,000 ...... 1 LESS THAN \$1,100 ..... 1 12 \$1,100 OR MORE..... 2 \$4,000 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$1,400 ..... 1 13 LESS THAN \$4,200 ...... 1 \$1,400 OR MORE..... 2 \$4,200 OR MORE ...... 2 LESS THAN \$1,700 ..... 1 14 LESS THAN \$4,500 ..... 1 \$1,700 OR MORE...... 2 \$4.500 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$2,000 ...... 1 LESS THAN \$4,800 ...... 1 15 \$2,000 OR MORE...... 2 \$4,800 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$2,300 ..... 1 LESS THAN \$5,100 ..... 1 16 \$2,300 OR MORE..... 2 \$5,100 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$2,500 ..... 1 LESS THAN \$5,400 ..... 1 17 \$2,500 OR MORE...... 2 \$5,400 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$2,800 ..... 1 LESS THAN \$5,700 ...... 1 18 \$2,800 OR MORE..... 2 \$5,700 OR MORE ..... 2 LESS THAN \$3,100 ...... 1 LESS THAN \$5,900 ...... 1 19 \$3,100 OR MORE...... 2 \$5,900 OR MORE ...... 2 LESS THAN \$3,400...... 1 LESS THAN \$6,200 ...... 1 10 20 \$6,200 OR MORE ..... 2 \$3,400 OR MORE..... 2 REFER TO H-9. H-9 = LESS THAN \$ AMOUNT (CODE 1) (BOX 21).

(SECTION I).

3	•	
1	1	1

H-9 = \$ AMOUNT OR MORE (CODE 2)

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BOX 21	REFER TO HOUSEHOLD	GRID ABOVE FAMILY LINE		
	RESPONDENT HAS NO F	AMILY MEMBERS		(BOX 22)
	AT LEAST ONE FAMILY M CURRENTLY WORKING (	EMBER OTHER THAN RESP E-15 = 1)	ONDENT	(H-10)
	ALL FAMILY MEMBERS N	OT WORKING (E-15 = 2 OR	3) 🗆	(BOX 22)
	ENTER PERSO	N NUMBER(S) AND NAME(S IDENT, WHO ARE WORKING	OF FAMILY MEMBERS	S, OTHER
l-10.	Please look at this card.	Tell me the letter for the total ner) work <u>last week</u> . Was it	amount of pay before of	deductions that
SHON CARI H-10	D	PERSON NUMBER	NAME	EARNING
EARNING CODE	S AMOUNT	_ _		
-	Minimum III	''-		- '-'
<b>a</b> . <b>b</b> .	less than \$50.00, \$50.00 - \$99.99,	_ _		- 1_1
c. d.	\$100.00 - \$149.99, \$150.00 - \$199.99,	_ _		- 1_1
e. f.	\$200.00 - \$249.99, \$250.00 - \$299.99.			- 1_1
0	\$300.00 - \$399.99,	_ _		
ı	\$400.00 - \$499.99, \$500.00 or more?	_ _		.  _
j.	NO INCOME DON'T KNOW	_ _		

1\_1\_1

REFUSED

Now I have a few questions about household expenses.

<b>BOX 22</b>	REFER TO H-3.							
	RESPONDENT ( (CODE 1 OR 2)	OR OTHE	R FAMILY	MEMBER	OWNS HOM	E	☐ (H-1	1)
	OTHER OWNER	(CODE	3, 4, OR 5)				☐ (H-1	2)
F								
900	you (and your fami parately from the re ment?				it was the am our last paym			many times per do you make this sent?
		YES	NO DK			DK		
(1) Propert (2) Homeo		1(b&c)	2 8	<b>\$</b>	00	8	_ _	TIMES/YEAR
Associa	ation fees? minium fees?	1 (b&c) 1 (b&c)	2 8 2 8	:=	.00	8	_ _	TIMES/YEAR TIMES/YEAR
	ce?	1 (b&c)	2 8	s	00	8	1_1_1	TIMES/YEAR
80	you (and your fam parately from the re t) payments?				it was the arr our last paym			many times per do you make this sent?
		YES	NO DK			DK		
(2) Electric (3) Water s	fuel oil? ity? and sewer? emoval?	1(b&c) 1(b&c) 1(b&c) 1(b&c)	2 8 2 8 2 8 2 8		.00 	8 8		TIMES/YEAR TIMES/YEAR TIMES/YEAR TIMES/YEAR
	NED UTILITY	141000	2 8		00	8	1_1_1	TIMES/YEAR
H-13.	Do you (or anyo vehicles (RVs) a			wn a car, v	an, or small	truck?	Please exc	dude recreations
								) I-19)
	(a) How	many ca	rs, small tru	ucks, or va	ns are owned	by yo	u (or your t	anally)?
	1	_ _	NUMBE	R OF MOT	OR VEHICLE	S		

# ASK H-14 THROUGH H-17, IN ORDER, FOR VEHICLE 1, VEHICLE 2, VEHICLE 3. START WITH NEWEST VEHICLE.

		VEHICLE 1	VEHICLE 2	VEHICLE 3
H-14	Who (le/are) the owner(s) of the (newsst/next	# MARCHA   _   _	a. PERSON#  _ _	8. PERSON#  _ _
	newest) motor	NAME	NAME	NAME
	vehicle?	b. remone  _ _	b. PERSON#  _ _	b. PERSON#  _ _
		NAME	NAME	NAME
H-15	What is the year, make, and model of this vehicle?	1 1 9 1 1 1	1 1 9 1 1 1 YEAR	1   9
		- ENM	WAG .	MARE
		MODEL	MODEL	MODEL
	(a)	IF ANY ITEM IN H-15 IS UNKNOWN, ASIC: If this vehicle were sold, what would it sell for in its present condition?	IF ANY ITEM IN H-15 IS UNKNOWN, ASK: If this vehicle were sold, what would it sell for in its present condition?	IF ANY ITEM IN H-15 IS UNKNOWN, ASK: If this vehicle were sold, what would it sell for in its present condition?
		.00 MOUNT	\$00	\$00
		DK 8	DK 8	DK 8
H-16	is this vehicle used primarily for either business	YES 1	YES 1	YE8 1
	purposes or for the transportation of a disabled person? 4	NO 2	мо 2	мо 2
H-17	le there another vehicle which has not been asked	YES	YES 1 (ABKH-14 - H-17 FOR NEXT VEHICLE)	YES 1 (H-18)
	about?	NO 2 (+10)	NO 2 (+10)	NO 2 (H-10)

H-18	If the other vehicle(s) owned by you (and your family) were sold, what would (it/they) sell for in (its/their) present condition?							
	.00	8	.00	\$	.00			
H-19	Do you (or anyone in you	YES				1 (a) 2 (SECTION I)		
(a)	If this vehicle were sold, it sell for in its present o	Control of the contro	•_	OTORCYCLE 1	\$ B DK	MOTORCYCLE 2		

### I. INCOME

The next two questions are about <u>your</u> own income in 1991, not including any income received by other members of your family.

i-1. Please take a look at this card. What is the letter that comes closest to your annual income from work in 1991, before taxes or deductions?

include your <u>earnings</u> from wages, salaries, commissions, bonuses, tips, business and farm income, partnership, or professional practice.

## CIRCLE ONE CODE ONLY



a.	UNDER \$3,000,	0
b.	\$3,000 - \$5,999,	0
C.	\$6,000 - \$8,999,	0
d.	\$9,000 - \$11,999,	0
0.	\$12,000 - \$14,999,	0
f.	\$15,000 - \$19,999,	0
g.	\$20,000 - \$24,999,	0
h.	\$25,000 - \$29,999,	0
i.	\$30,000 - \$34,999,	0
j.	\$35,000 - \$39,999,	10
k.	\$40,000 - \$44,999,	1
1.	\$45,000 - \$49,999,	12
m.	\$50,000 - \$59,999,	15
n.	\$60,000 OR OVER	14
0.	NO INCOME	O
p.	DON'T KNOW	96
0	REFUSED	97

I-2. Did you receive any other income from any of the sources on this card in 1991?

Interest from money in the bank, money from people who rent housing from you, State or Local General Assistance, Social Security, Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), financial support from other government programs, money from friends or relatives living in the United States but outside of your household.

SHOW CARD I-2
---------------------

YES	1	
NO	2	(1-4)

I-3. What letter on this card comes closest to your annual income in 1991 from these sources, that is, other than income from work?

### CIRCLE ONE CODE ONLY



a.	UNDER \$1,000,	01
b.	\$1,000 - \$2,999,	02
C.	\$3,000 - \$5,999,	03
d.	\$6,000 - \$8,999,	04
<b>e</b> .	\$9,000 - \$11,999,	05
f.	\$12,000 - \$14,999,	06
g.	\$15,000 - \$19,999,	07
h.	\$20,000 - \$24,999,	30
i.	\$25,000 - \$29,999,	09
j.	\$30,000 - \$34,999,	10
k.	\$35,000 - \$39,999,	11
I.	\$40,000 - \$44,999,	12
m.	\$45,000 - \$49,999,	13
n.	\$50,000 - \$54,999,	14
0.	\$55,000 - \$59,999,	15
p.	\$60,000 OR OVER	16
q.		00
r.	DON'T KNOW	98
8.	DEELIGEN	97
	HEFUSED	31

The next question is about your family's income, including your own. Please think of all the family members who lived in your household in 1991.

I-4. Once again, take a look at this card. What is the letter that comes closest to your <u>total family</u> income from all sources in the United States in 1991, including yours?

Please include the combined income from all family members living in the United States and in the same household as you during 1991, including only spouse or partner, parents, children, brothers, sisters, grandparents, grandchildren, father-in-law, mother-in-law, brothers-in-law, and sisters-in-law.

### CIRCLE ONE CODE ONLY



8.	UNDER \$3,000,	01
b.	\$3,000 - \$5,999,	02
C.	\$6,000 - \$8,999,	03
d.	\$9,000 - \$11,999,	04
0.	\$12,000 - \$14,999,	08
f.	\$15,000 - \$19,999,	06
g.	\$20,000 - \$24,999,	07
h.	\$25,000 - \$29,999,	08
i.	\$30,000 - \$34,999,	08
1.	\$35,000 - \$39,999,	10
k.	\$40,000 - \$44,999,	11
1.	\$45,000 - \$49,999,	12
m.	\$50,000 - \$59,999,	13
n.	\$60,000 - \$69,999,	14
0.	\$70,000 OR OVER	15
p.	NO INCOME	00
q.	DON'T KNOW	98
r.	REFUSED	97

1-5.	Many people living in the United States send money to relatives and friends in other countries and this is a perfectly acceptable procedure. How much of the money you (and your family) earned in 1991 did you send to relatives and friends in other countries?  PROBE: Approximately how much?
	a. AMOUNT SENT: \$  _   _   _   _   _   .00
	OR
	PERCENT SENT:  _    %
	b. NO MONEY SENT
	c. REFUSED (1-9)
	d. DON'T KNOW999998
1-6.	In what form was the money <u>usually</u> sent to another country <u>in 19\$1</u> ? Was it
	CIRCLE ONE CODE ONLY.
	a. by cash, 1
	b. by personal check, 2
	c. by money order, 3
	d. by a transfer from a bank or financial institution,
	e. by traveler's checks, or
	f. In some other way? (SPECIFY,
1-7.	To what country was this money sent in 1991?
	COUNTRY
1-8.	Who in your family usually decided how much money to send in 1991?
	ENTER NAME(S) AND PERSON NUMBER(S) FROM HOUSEHOLD GRID.
	PERSON # NAME
	PERSON # NAME
	SOMEONE NO LONGER IN HOUSEHOLD

14.	friends and	to sending money), people occasionally send gifts or tale i relatives when they travel to other countries. In 1991, di may to friends or relatives in other countries?	d you	s or money to their send gitts or take
		YES	1 2	(a) (I-10)
	<b>(a)</b> .	What was the approximate total value of these gifts and m  \$                00  VALUE OF GIFTS AND MONEY	oney/	
		DON'T KNOW		
1-10.	In a few y citizen. Do	years you will be eligible to apply for naturalization to be you think you will apply or not? Please look at this card.	Woul	ne a United States d you say
SHOW CARD I-10		a. Yes, definitely, b. Yes, probably, c. Uncertain, not sure, d. Probably not, or. e. Definitely not? f. DON'T KNOW		,
I-11.	Looking at	head to the future, many people plan to retire some place. will most likely	Whe	n you retire, do you
		a. stay in the United States, b. return to your home country, or c. go to some other country? d. ALREADY RETIRED	3 4	

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ATTACH MINI LABEL HERE

# J. CLOSING

J-1.	Finally, could you please give me a telephone number where you can be reached, just in case I need to clarify what I have written?												
	AREA CODE PHONE NUMBER												
J-2.	Could you please give me the name and phone number of someone who does not live with you who would know your current telephone number, just in case you move?												
	PLEASE PRINT												
	FIRST NAME LAST NAME												
	AREA CODE PHONE NUMBER												
	Please also give me the name of the city and state in which (NAME) lives.												
	TOWN STATE												
<b>J3</b> .	And what is (NAME)'s relationship to you?												
	RELATIONSHIP TO RESPONDENT												
BOX 23	CLOSING STATEMENT												
	Thank you very much for your help in this survey. We appreciate your cooperation.												
	END TIME  _ : _  A												
	INTERVIEWER'S SIGNATURE:												
	DATE INTERVIEW COMPLETED:												
817	ERWIEWER: TEAR OFF THIS PAGE, ATTACH MINI I.D. LABEL, AND INSERT PAGE IN CASE FOLDER												

NOTE: the Household Enumeration on the following page originally folded out from the back cover and was visible during inquiries about other household members.

HOUSEHOLD ENUMERATION (8-1 - 8-10)  PELATIONSHIP CODES  S - SPOUSE/PARTINER PP - PARENTS/IN-LAWS CH - CHILDREN GG - GRANDPARENTS GC - GRANDPARENTS GC - GRANDPARENTS GC - OTHER RELATIVES									E-11  RECORD M OR F. IF NEC- ESSARY, ASK: Is (NAME) male or femule?		was (NAME) on (his/her) last	Please look at this card. Which category describes (NAME'S) current resident status? Is It SHOW CARD E-13	FOR AGES 4+, ASK: Was (NAME) Ilving with you when you applied for temporary residence in (DATE)?		E-15  FOR AGES 16+, ASK: Is (NAME) a. ourrently working for pay? 1 b. actively looking for work? 2 or o. doing something else? 3					
	WE 00 as	MALS	-			LATE						•		**	STATUS CODE	-	***		u	THESE
<u>.                                    </u>			. 1	2	3	4	8		7		N N	l F				1	2	1	2	3
			. ,	2	,	•			,			,				,	2	,		,
04			. ,	2	,	•	5		,	•		,				,	2	•	2	,
<b>a</b>			. ,	2	3	•			,			F				,	2	1	2	,
-			. ,	2	3	•	5		,	•		,				•	2	,		
<b>67</b>			. •	2	3	•			,	•		F	-			,	2	1		,
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12			,		.3	•		•	,	•		,	-			1	2	1	2	•
14			,			•			,	•		,	-			1		,	2	•
4			,			•	8	,	7			,	-			,	2	,	2	
•	Mary.		1			•	8	6	7		M		_			,		1		

RETURN TO 6-10, PAGE 25

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